The Nation.

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The Week.

Our Chief Executive evidently agrees with a noted philosopher that consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds. Such, at all events, is the reflection suggested by the report sent out from Oyster Bay on Monday that the extra session of Congress had been abandoned. It is true that the successive postponements of the extra session had robbed it of all but a sentimental importance. The three weeks in November, every one knew, could serve no purpose but to save the President's pride. But the "irreducible minimum" now appears to have been given up on the representations of Senator Knox. The President is really to be congratulated on his surrender to common sense. But it must now occur to him that the pace of legislation is often in reality slackened by the premature cracking of the Executive whip. Doubtless among our experienced Senators, as once among those of Rome, "those that understood him smiled at one another and shook their heads." The "continual dropping" of friendly remonstrance, personal appeal, and coaxed delay has served to wear away the stone of adamantine purpose. But what excoriations at the President's hands have "the craven" and "the weakling" suffered for like infirmity of purpose!

Despite the "stand-pat" attitude of the Senate and Secretary Shaw on the tariff, the ghost of revision and reciprocity will not down. President Roosevelt, so it is announced from Washington, has decided to negotiate another reciprocity treaty with Germany. He may have but slight hope of favorable action thereon, but he will at least obtrusively dump on the Senate the final responsibility for any depression in our export industries which may result from the new German tariff after March 1, 1906. It will be well for the worshippers of the protectionist fetish to bestir themselves before that date. Germany has already notified our Government that, after March 1 next, the benefit of "the most favored nation" clause will cease to apply to us. Treaties have already been concluded between Germany and seven European States providing for the mutual enjoyment of preferential tariff rates. There is no way, apparently, of our getting into this charmed circle but by paying the price of admission. The German Agrarians, who have the ear of the Imperial Government, insist as obstinately upon our making concessions as do our tariff Bourbons upon the immutability of the Dingley schedules. We may have a chance to see experimentally what happens when an infinite force is brought to bear against absolutely immutable resistance. Meantime, it would not be surprising to see Secretary Shaw's dictum reversed, and, instead of the Republican party appealing to "the producer," to see "the producer" with burnt fingers appealing to the Republican party to prevent the loss of German markets.

Appeal to our treaty rights as against the Chinese boycott has been made by the Administration, but it can come to nothing. Guarantees in our treaty with China that our merchants shall be permitted to "sell" in each of the ports open to commerce cannot carry with them any correlative obligation on the part of the Chinese to buy. And if the hope is to compel the Chinese Government to put down a strike or to break a boycott, that is a doctrine of international law which would return to plague its inventors. If our Federal Government disclaims the power to prevent Chinamen from being massacred in this country, it cannot very well argue that China is bound to make her subjects handle and buy American goods, willy-nilly. We know precisely how we provoked the Chinese boycott. It was by cruel and discriminating legislation. If we propose to stand by that, let us endure the money loss without whimpering. But if we really desire to remove the boycott, we know how to go to work.

Wu Ting Fang denies that the direction of the Chinese boycott is in his hands. At the same time his attitude, as expressed in his interview on August 9, will give many of our citizens an unexpected sort of shock. The ex-Minister understood this country so well, and was so popular here himself, it somehow seems as if he might take a more sympathetic, a more tolerant view of our present difficulties. But no; while saying that he regrets the boycott itself as calculated to cause friction without good results, he speaks out regarding the provocation given by this country for retaliatory action. He seems not to have any more sympathy with our system of treating every Chinaman as an ignorant coolie until he proves himself something else, than if he had never been banqueted and invited to lecture in every city in this country. The attitude of Americans toward Mr. Wu has, indeed, always been peculiar. He was on such good terms with us that we unconsciously assumed that he must be on our side in any dispute, even if it were with his own country. Some of the comments heard during the Boxer troubles, when he came into such prominence, showed an amusing forgetfulness of the fact that the Minister was, after all, a Chinaman, and presumably a loyal one. When he went back to China, too, his departure was talked of almost as if he were an unofficial emissary of this country. It was a harmless enough consequence of our belief that no one who once studies our institutions can fail to see that they are better than his own, wherever he may live.

The memorial to the Porto Rican Insular Legislature passed by the League of Municipalities the other day, asking for a greater measure of self-government, is in several respects a remarkable document. A certain quaintness in phrasing does not detract from the reasonableness of the plea itself. "We do not believe," acknowledge the petitioners, "that Porto Rico, after obtaining her municipal freedom, will serve as a special model of local administration without a blot or hitch. . . . What we should assert, and do hereby assert, is the right to work out our own salvation and advancement. Let us reap profit from our good acts and derive benefit from the lessons of our errors." Again, "There are cities in the United States, the immoral administration of which gives rise to the protest of all good citizens, but over there no one has ever thought of depriving the municipalities of their autonomy and charging the State with the solution of local affairs." Concretely, what the representatives of these sixty-five insular municipalities desire is the amendment of the Foraker law, the organic act of the island. As this requires the assent of Congress, another memorial is to be addressed to that body. It has been one of the unpleasant consequences of the paternal form of government installed by us in Porto Rico, that it has made the natives look to us for everything, including material prosperity, and hold us responsible for every lack. At best, the present limited local governments are makeshifts.

Two county Democratic conventions in Maryland, those of Talbot and Caroline Counties, have failed to endorse the Poe-Gorman suffrage amendment, and this has put confidence into the opponents of that measure. The attitude in these Eastern Shore counties, however, seems to indicate dissatisfaction with the particular measure to be submitted this fall, and not with the general principle of restricted suffrage. The fact of

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the matter is that the Poe amendment cannot stand analysis, no matter with what view it is approached. As the Baltimore *News* says: "If it had been drawn up in great haste under the pressure of some terrible emergency, there might have been some possible excuse for its character." The long open letters published in newspaper advertising columns, which are a time-honored feature of Maryland politics, are playing their usual part this year; "Tocsin" taking the most prominent part for the amendment. But "Publius" has made one retort which reveals as well as anything possibly could the motives behind the movement for disfranchisement. "Ulysses" had asked, "If the negro fusion be inimical to good government, why should not white Republicans be equally detestable?" And Publius thunders back, "They are."

An interesting situation is created in Virginia by the contest for the Senatorship between Senator Martin and Gov. Montague. The primary law which Gov. Montague was instrumental in getting passed by the State Legislature, provides that candidates for the United States Senate shall be selected by the qualified voters of the parties. The State primary is to be held on August 22. In effect, it amounts to the popular election of Senators; and the present campaign has been growing in interest since Gov. Montague early in the year announced himself as a candidate to succeed Senator Martin. This means that, for the first time in many years, the people of Virginia are hearing able discussion of national affairs, and getting an accurate notion of the history and character of the United States Senate. "The fight," writes Prof. W. E. Dodd of Randolph-Macon College, "reminds one of ante-bellum days, when Whig and Democrat, Unionist and Secessionist, met upon every public platform to discuss the issues of the day." The people are listening eagerly to the rivals, thus disproving the familiar argument of the machine boss who asserts that the ordinary citizen cannot be induced to take an intelligent interest in politics. The real difficulty is with the voiceless and conscienceless candidates. Suppose we had in this State a law compelling Platt to go to the people for endorsement on a statesmanlike presentation of State and national issues!

The South Carolina dispensary began on July 1 its thirteenth year as an institution, and the indications are that this will be in every sense an unlucky one for it. Last year its opponents began a bitter, uncompromising fight which not only has put the dispensary advocates completely on the defensive, but brings actual overthrow at least within the range of possibility. There has existed for some time a law which permits counties, on petition of a certain proportion of voters, to hold a special election on the question of dispensary or no dispensary. Two counties, Marlboro and Greenwood, went "dry" many years ago. Last year two others, Cherokee and Pickens, voted out the dispensaries. And now a canvass made by correspondents of the Charleston *News and Courier* shows that in eighteen others elections have been ordered or petitions are now being circulated. In fourteen of these, according to the same authority, the chances are believed to favor the prohibitionists. The dispensary is called popular in only twelve counties, two of these, the so-called "city counties," preferring it to prohibition, although license, which the law does not permit under any circumstances, is the system really desired. Charges of various abuses in the conduct of the State liquor-shops have been current for some time, and an official inquiry now in progress has confirmed the most damaging of these allegations. The testimony given before the investigating committee at Spartanburg has shown the system to be honeycombed by both political and commercial corruption. From the stories told, it appears that dispensers were forced to pay tribute to the County Boards of Control in order to obtain and hold their positions; that they recouped themselves in part by taking valuable presents from liquor houses, or extra quantities of liquors, which they then sold without accounting to the State, and that these liquor agents attempted to dictate the appointment of dispensers. Details were also given of the raising of a fund in Spartanburg which went to a local newspaper to win its support for the dispensary. With all its faults, the dispensary does pay. The citizens of Pickens County, who voted it out a month ago, are already receiving notices of a tax for road improvements which used to be paid out of liquor profits.

In commenting upon the general consternation caused by the arrest of four citizens of western Kansas charged with perjury in connection with fraudulent entries on homestead and timber claims, the Topeka *Capital* remarks: "The fact is that the men are charged with what has become a common practice in the West." One of the accused, a former county clerk, is said to have bought the title to a homestead for $50, and to have furnished the witnesses to swear that the seller had lived on the land for five years, as required by law. As a matter of fact, the land had been taken up only two years before the sale, and had been abandoned. The *Capital* says that many claims in Kansas have been given up in the same way. Homesteaders have often failed to fulfil the residence requirement, though the records show that the customary perjury has been committed in a cheerful spirit. It is unfortunately true that the land laws have been looked upon as obstacles to be got around rather than as a wise protection of the genuine settler's rights. The big cattlemen and the timber speculators have lulled the official conscience to sleep. Land titles have been as easy to acquire as military honors in a South American republic; and it is not strange that the new and stricter policy of the Interior Department confuses the Kansas mind.

Conventions seeking greater uniformity in law or administration in the various States are becoming noticeably frequent. Insurance Commissioners from several States have gathered in this city, in consequence of the Equitable scandal, seeking jointly some light on the situation which shall result not only in greater security but in greater uniformity in the conduct of insurance business throughout the country. The invitation of the Governor of Pennsylvania to the other States to send delegates to the coming interstate congress aiming at more uniform laws on marriage and divorce is another instance. A third illustration of the same tendency is to be found in the acceptance by the Governors of twenty-six States of the invitations extended by the National Civic Federation to be represented at the National Conference on Immigration, to be held in this city in December next. The ever-growing homogeneity of this country, together with the expansion of many kinds of enterprise beyond the jurisdiction of a single State, make the need of such conferences increasingly great. It might not be impossible to organize these noncontinuous conventions in some sort of a central bureau, such as was contemplated in the body of delegates whose function, as originally conceived, was to amend our Federal Constitution from time to time, as need might require.

The avowal on Thursday by the Insurance Commissioners of six States that they were dissatisfied with the Hendricks report is strong confirmatory evidence that the Insurance Department of this State is too deeply immersed in politics to safeguard the public interest. The belated public acknowledgment by its officials that the so-called preliminary report suppressed essential facts such as the Depew loan and the Union Pacific blind pool, throws additional discredit on an already suspected public agency. The powers of the Insurance Commissions from these six States—Wisconsin, Minnesota, Kentucky, Tennessee, Nebraska, and Missouri—while technically small, are in reality extensive. By the recommendation of retaliatory legislation, or the withdrawal of licenses to

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New York companies to do business in their respective States, very considerable pressure can be brought to bear. The investigation on which these State officials are intent is technical in its character, as contrasted with the main quest of the legislative commission, which is concerned primarily with past illegality and future remedial legislation. The more light that can be let in on this subject from every quarter, the better will the interest of the policyholder be subserved.

The failure of the Fiala Arctic expedition will surprise no one. From its inception it was doomed to an inglorious end, precisely like its Ziegler predecessor, the Baldwin expedition of 1901. Neither expedition was conceived in the proper spirit, and neither appears to have been vigorously led. Fortunately, there was no severe loss of life in either undertaking, as in other ill-starred Arctic expeditions. On the other hand, the expense of the ventures is probably out of all proportion to the scientific results achieved. Both expeditions were lavishly, if not extravagantly, fitted out at the very time that Peary was walking the streets begging for money for his project. Yet his demonstrated ability to lead and his extraordinary polar experience were overlooked by Mr. Ziegler. This, rightly or wrongly, gave the impression that he was more desirous of achieving fame for himself than of insuring the discovery of the Pole. Certainly, Mr. Peary's admirers will now be more than ever convinced that if the money wasted on the Baldwin and Fiala expeditions had been put into his hands, it would have made certain the success of his undertaking by enabling him to plan his work on a larger and better scale than hitherto.

The Czar has approved the project for a national Parliament. If the Japanese terms at Portsmouth are regarded as too severe or humiliating for acceptance, this grant of an elective assembly may easily become the popular rallying-point for a continuation of the war in the East. If, on the other hand, peace is concluded with Japan, the concession of a representative element in the Government may be used to bolster up the waning prestige and popularity of the ruling family, grand dukes and all. The newly created Legislature is to number about five hundred members, chosen through a system of indirect election. Its functions will be mainly deliberative and consultative. It will thus have the right to express the aspirations and sentiments of the Russian people. Further than this, the national assembly will have the right of veto upon ministerial proposals laid before it, provided a two-thirds vote can be obtained against a projected law. Englishmen and Americans would feel more confident of its eventual success if the power of the purse were indisputably committed to its keeping. Without control over supply, constitutional government is likely to degenerate into a farce. The nature of the newly created body will, it is said, be proclaimed in a coming manifesto, and its first session is set down for November.

Norway's practically unanimous vote for secession was to have been expected. Her leaders have taken no step without being fully in touch with popular sentiment, and this has favored extreme measures, with an intensity of feeling very difficult for foreigners to understand, since there is no immense issue like that of slavery to make men favor disunion. Whether the old union with Denmark will be reëstablished in the shape of an understanding; whether Russia will be emboldened to move upon Sweden, and whether Germany will profit by the realignment, are questions eagerly debated abroad. Björnstjerne Björnson, writing in the *Figaro*, thinks that the divorce of Sweden and Norway may possibly result in a formidable alliance of all the Germanic peoples in the world, which he would like to see. This Pan-Germanic League should, he thinks, include Great Britain, the United States, Denmark, Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, Holland, Austria, Sweden, Norway, and even Luxemburg. Such an extraordinary combination would surely be thought to destroy the Russian peril, the Slavic peril, and the Yellow peril by creating a Germanic peril.

With French soreness over the Morocco imbroglio what it is, it is hard to understand how Germany could wish further to complicate matters by putting through a loan to the Sultan in advance of the projected conference. Yet it is reported from both Berlin and Paris that this has been done, and dispatches from the former city are calling attention to the political as well as financial value to Germany of the loan of $2,500,000 to the Sultan of Morocco. Fully three weeks ago the move was rumored, but at the time Paris was quieted by denials. The latest news, however, is that the French are indignant over the statement that the loan is an accomplished fact. It does not ease the situation for them to be told that the loan is "personal." The Sultan's personality cannot thus be severed from that of his State. If ever a monarch could say, "L'état, c'est moi," it is the Sultan. To loan money to him is practically to loan money to Morocco, and the French contention is that this is a violation of the agreement to leave everything as it was till the conference. Probably some explanation will be forthcoming from Germany.

Distress and consequent disorders in the south of Spain appear to be mounting every day. Painful stories of starvation and of a sort of reign of terror seem to be only too true. The state of things was clearly foreseen, however, months ago. A practical failure of crops in Andalusia, Estremadura, and in parts of Aragon was made certain by the unprecedented drought through the winter and early spring. The worst fears have now been realized. Hundreds of thousands are reduced to misery. A couple of weeks ago, in the city of Cadiz, no less than 20,000 out of a total population of 70,000 were asking for public assistance. Since then affairs have grown worse through all that region. The telegrams report that the rich are fleeing from their homes in dread. There is a peculiar reason for this. Most of the land in Andalusia is held in vast estates, the peasants being practically tenant farmers. This system of *latifundia* tends both to unscientific agriculture and to intensified class feelings. When famine comes, the peasants, who at best have but a narrow margin separating them from want, turn upon the great landlords as so many despoilers. Add the depreciated currency and the high prices of the necessaries of life, and you have a situation truly unhappy. The new Liberal Ministry will have its hands full in bringing the country safely through so severe an economic crisis.

Rumors of the impending retirement of Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, are again current. The recent enlargement of the powers of Lord Kitchener without previous notice to the Viceroy provoked so sharp a protest from the latter that the Government receded in part from its original position. Friction is still said to exist between the two, and this, combined with the ill-health of Lord Curzon, is given as the probable cause of the latter's retirement. His resignation is expected even before the Prince of Wales sets out on his projected tour to India. In connection with the prorogation of Parliament, it is at least interesting to note the conjecture freely hazarded in England that Lord Curzon, provided his health permits, will one day succeed Mr. Balfour as leader of the Conservatives. Their electoral *débâcle* cannot be deferred much longer, and the Liberals are then almost certain to come into office. As leader of the Opposition and reorganizer of the jarring elements supporting the present Government, Lord Curzon might easily be the person selected. Not only is his ability acknowledged on all sides, but he is fortunately not committed to any of the fiscal heresies which have proved such a source of bickering and weakness in both Unionist and Conservative ranks.

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THE PRESIDENT'S AUGUST SPEECHIFYING.

It was Mr. Root, we believe, who described the President as a man of such simplicity that he "thinks out loud." The loud part, at least, may be freely admitted. And as for the ingenuousness of Mr. Roosevelt in letting the people know how his mind is working, that, too, is pretty obvious. With him, coming events, or what he thinks or hopes will be coming events, cast their shadows before in a speech. He was plainly thinking out loud on Friday at Chautauqua, and went further than he ever has gone before in letting the world see the play of his intellect about the Monroe Doctrine.

Apparently, he wished to inform European nations, with the South American and West Indian republics, as well as his own countrymen, that all his intentions are honorable and peaceful. It may be that he thought his words laid down a policy absolutely clear and safe; but we fear that the interested foreigners who have long been eagerly asking Americans just what President Roosevelt means to do under his interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine, will be thrown by his language into redoubled uncertainty. For note the exceedingly vague definition by the President. He does not propose to allow the Monroe Doctrine to become "fossilized." It must be continually "adapted" to "meet the growing, changing needs of this hemisphere." In other words, the Doctrine is a conjurer's hat, out of which anything he pleases may be pulled. It is like Newman's theory of the evolution of Catholic belief—whenever you need a new article of faith, you have the authority ready to produce it. The Monroe Doctrine being thus conceived of as embodied national wilfulness, President Roosevelt serves notice that we shall employ it as a justification for whatever we choose to do—meanwhile, keeping the nations guessing what that choice will be. Nothing can be more disquieting in international relations than such indefiniteness. "That is the very reason we regard President Roosevelt as a dangerous man," said a Frenchman recently; "we don't know what he is going to do. He is like an automobile running wild, which may lurch in your direction at any moment."

Disposed as he is to make the present-day use of the Monroe Doctrine as putty in his hands, it is not strange that Mr. Roosevelt reads into its history what he pleases. He says it was designed to prevent "great military Powers" from obtaining new footholds in this hemisphere. But the real objection was, not that the Powers were military, but that they were distant and alien. The Monroe Doctrine was, in its essence, a charter of self-government. It was a protest against any government, good or bad, being forced upon a people across the seas. But of all that President Roosevelt has entirely lost sight. Force is not repugnant to him provided he do the forcing. Europeans must not impose their will upon our sister republics, but we may freely. An unconscious juxtaposition in the President's speech brings this out with really comic effect. He, "personally," does "not want to see any foreign Power take possession . . . of the custom houses of an American republic in order to enforce its obligations." Noble love of independence! we at once exclaim. Splendid hatred of oppression! But Mr. Roosevelt instantly adds, "The alternative may at any time be that we shall be *forced to do so ourselves*"!

The course which he distinctly marks out for himself is that of a roving policeman, with no orders except his own instincts (which he protests are good), seeing to it that the republics of the Americas each maintain "a just and orderly government." The judge of what is just and orderly is, of course, himself. One thing upon which he comes out strong is that they must pay their debts. Only, he puts in the caveat, the debts must be just—"we shall ourselves thoroughly examine all these claims, and see that none that are improper are paid." And he thinks in this way to quiet international controversies! Why, for every question he lays by such means, he will start up ten new ones more dangerous. He may settle our own disputes with the Dominican republic, but, in the act, embroil us with France or Belgium or Germany by his off-hand decision that their claims upon San Domingo are "improper." It is a perfect thicket of nettles into which he is jauntily thrusting his hand.

In the President's passion for making the world altogether such as he is, he ignores one of the fixed elements of the problem. This is the obstinate preference of people that have tasted liberty and seen that it is good, for doing things in their own way. It may not suit us, but if it suits them, that means contentment, self-respect, freedom to develop along natural lines. Those are political blessings, all of which would be destroyed by such a forcible imposing of the will of a foreigner as President Roosevelt proposes. He is almost painfully conscious of his own benevolence, but he does not see that benevolence at the tip of a bayonet may be hateful. The satisfaction of self-government appears to mean nothing to him—that is, in another. If any nation should undertake to cripple our sovereignty as he proposes to do that of our neighbors, he would be the first to draw an indignant sword. But others he is for clubbing into order. He knows nothing of that large and serene confidence in liberty which Thiers had, who called it a "great lottery organized by the Creator," in which the nations do well to take shares since, "even if they lose sometimes, they oftenest gain." Our fathers thought the free choice of the governed results in a better government than can be imposed from without even by the wisest and most benevolent Sultan, Czar—or President.

No one can read attentively the President's remarks at Chautauqua about railways without seeing that he is not nearly so sure of his ground as formerly. He betrays a nervousness and irritability on the subject, quite new to him. No longer is he for the bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill to fix rates. All that he asks now is power to "remedy the abuses in connection with railway transportation." Not yet, it appears, has he looked to see if existing law does not furnish adequate power, provided that it were used. And how, after having refused to allow his chosen investigators to prosecute Paul Morton, can the President rage, as he does, against those rich men who knowingly violate the law? He may be sure that the Morton case will be thrown in his teeth many times at Washington next winter. How unconsciously Mr. Roosevelt drops into the language of a benevolent autocrat, is seen again and again in this speech. He says that it is "impossible" for him longer to show "leniency" to offenders against the anti-Trust laws. But that is the tone of a gracious monarch. A Constitutional President has no business to be either lenient or merciless; his sole duty is to enforce the law. And what could be more futile than the President's begging the corporations to acquiesce in the "mild kind of governmental control" he proposes, lest some agitator come to power and deal with them in a far more "drastic" manner? Sensible men will consider his proposals on their merits; as they will those of the wilder confiscator when he turns up.

Chautauqua had been preceded by the temperance convention at Wilkes-Barre. Here the President's vehement nothings suffered by comparison with the quiet but piercing directness of the Catholic priest whose letter he quoted. If the President must preach, the priest shows him how to do it. With his eye on the facts, the clergyman states how prone workingmen are to abuse their opportunities. "The higher the wages, the more money they spend in saloons. The shorter the hours, the more they absent themselves from home. An apparent disregard for family ties is growing." Beside such study at short range of the actual working of trades unionism in the anthracite regions, the President's balanced phrases appeared more than ever like a juggler's tossing of his balls—"I strongly believe in trade unions, wisely and justly handled, in which the rightful purpose to benefit those connected with them is not accompanied by a desire to

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do injustice or wrong to others." That is very like confessing faith in a vacuum. For our part, we feel that the President missed a fine chance to utter a forcible and timely word. The coal workers are being artfully plied by agitators with every incitement to discontent and trouble-making. Their leader, John Mitchell, lives upon disturbance, and has openly threatened it for next year. He practically annexes President Roosevelt as a fellow-unionist and a sympathizer. The opportunity for a strong disclaimer and for sound if unwelcome advice was tempting; but the President preferred to hide himself in a cloud of meaningless platitudes.

TRUSTEES OF CIVILIZATION.

The addresses of Secretary Taft in Manila and the comments which the Secretary's words have evoked are peculiarly significant. It is no mere picturesque junket that he is conducting, albeit the welcome accorded him has not been devoid of Oriental color. It is clearly not a purposeless tour of inspection to satisfy an aimless curiosity that has been in progress, but the carefully calculated semi-official entry of an accredited minister of a distant sovereign. Mr. Taft's former official position in the Philippines, his present status as *de facto* Minister for the Colonies, and the not at all violent improbability that he may be his party's nominee to succeed President Roosevelt—all conspire to confer triple importance upon his well-weighed declarations of the Executive's purposes as regards the Philippines.

It was on Friday last that Secretary Taft explained the alignment of American opinion upon the question of our colonial possessions in the Pacific. He conceded frankly that there was "a considerable number who have the real Imperialistic idea." The "real Imperialistic idea" he described as "extending the influence of America, by purchase and conquest, into the Orient . . . for the purpose of controlling the Pacific and getting the largest share possible of the Orient trade." The second party —and this he declared to be the most numerous—are those who originally saw with reluctance our sway extended over the Philippines, but who now take the view that we are by the fortune of war constituted trustees for the Filipinos. According to this view, Providence, like a glorified Mr. Ryan, has made us the guardians of the interests of untutored millions in the Pacific, and consequently it falls to us to preserve intact the assets of self-government, which in due time we shall pass over to the policyholders. Still a third attitude of mind the Secretary refers to in his mention of those who would immediately give up the exercise of authority in the islands. The two factions who support this policy do so from the most curiously contrasted motives. The first desire to relieve the United States of a burden; the second to relieve the Filipinos of an injustice. The former would escape from an expensive liability; the other would atone for what they conceive to be a national sin.

The Secretary's remark that "this third party has been twice defeated in an election on that issue" was doubly inaccurate. It overlooked the fact that withdrawal from the Philippines has never been more than a collateral issue in our elections, Congressional or Presidential. It also obscured the fact that one faction which to-day advocates getting rid of the Philippine incubus is of quite recent origin, and reflects the growing attitude of the man in the street who has no interest in the distant archipelago, and is annoyed at having its affairs thrust upon his attention.

But it is mainly with Secretary Taft and his co-trustees of civilization that we have to do. That this comfortable notion of trusteeship for an inferior race is held in good conscience, but with a somewhat somnolent indifference by the greater number of unreflecting voters, is not improbably true. We desire to address ourselves to these trustees in the capacity of legal adviser, for it is by no means certain that they will not eventually be ousted on the ground of incompetence to administer the trust in question.

First of all, it is worthy of notice that this humanitarian philosophy, the deed of trust as it were, is an instrument of very doubtful validity. We had taken Manila by reason of our war with Spain. We were confronted with a native movement professedly aimed at autonomy. This we crushed by force of arms. The uneasy conscience of our democracy demanded a salve, and the doctrine of trusteeship was concocted only after military conquest was under way. Besides the spurious origin of this doctrine of an international trust, it is also to be noticed that the deposit of civilization supposedly committed to our hands during the minority of our Filipino wards has been devised on purely à-priori grounds. It meets not the requirements of a sub-tropical race backward in the march of industrial progress, but the needs of a highly developed economic organism habituated to universal suffrage and presupposing universal education. We are to educate the Filipinos up to the competence for autonomy, but the autonomy may not be that of Japan, for instance, but must be like our own. A careful student of the matter has declared that "in history we have no example of the autonomy of one nation being created by the efforts of another, and no nation has as yet successfully determined the social evolution of another race by conscious political methods." Secretary Taft, since making his now famous speech in Manila, has stated that, "if the government of the country [*i. e.*, the Philippine Islands] were transferred now, it would soon be controlled by those who hold mortgages." This, it must be confessed, is a horrible alternative; but as between the native mortgage-holder and the alien office-holder, the choice is not an easy one. Not even the native mortgage-holder would proscribe free trade, the one indispensable stimulus to the industrial growth of the islands.

Moreover, President Roosevelt, Secretary Taft, and the other trustees must be aware that their benevolent object has not only to overcome the opposition of the Filipino, but the avowedly selfish and conscienceless purpose of those described by the Secretary as having "the real Imperialistic idea"—exploitation of the native through lust of gain and blood. The trader who wants the monopoly of the Philippine market, the home producer who will not concede the least competition of Philippine products, the concessionaire who thirsts for franchises, the military man who has little sympathy with real democracy, are all prompted by selfishness to thwart the purposes of this international trusteeship. The potential enemies of the benevolent plan are still more numerous than the classes already enumerated. As Hobhouse points out, "In relation to dependencies and weaker races our imperial democracy is a governing class, and it can only be taught as other governing classes have been."

Last of all, the success of our experiment with our subjugated wards so far has been most meagre. Secretary Taft says that complete self-government is unthinkable for a generation or more. It is a question whether all our work in the islands may not be undone. The *Army and Navy Journal* of August 12 says "the withdrawal of military control was premature and unsafe," and that "beneath the surface of an insecure peace" is "widespread native discontent and disloyalty." The same journal declares that Gov. Wright's utterances on July 28 "are the first official acknowledgment" of these facts, and that the situation "requires a prompt and radical revision of our Philippine policy." We think that this is not unlikely, but, instead of favoring "a reorganization of the whole administrative system along military lines," we would suggest to the trustees of civilization to reconsider their problem in the perspective of history, and to inquire whether there is a reasonable prospect of success along the lines of their present policy.

SECRETARY SHAW'S SPEECH.

Any lingering doubt that Secretary Shaw is a candidate for the Presidency was dispelled by his speech at Roanoke,

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Virginia, on August 8. He spoke under an August sun, much less exhilarating, one would suppose, than the "October sun" of Webster's last appeal for the Presidency in the same State; but his address is as unmistakable as was that of the defender of the Fugitive Slave Law, a half-century ago. It is, in fact, all adrip with Presidency-seeking. No public orator not in quest of the White House as a residence is compelled to utter just the sort of platitude and forced compliment which inexorable custom requires of a Presidential candidate. The people whom he happens to be addressing are always just a *leetle* the finest that it has been his good fortune ever to have met, etc. For details, see Mr. Shaw's tribute to the Virginians; also, Birdofredum Sawin's election address.

Those flourishes safely over, the Secretary settled down to his argument, which is about the crassest bit of protectionism that we have had even from him. There may be method in this. If President Roosevelt is not again frightened away from his determination to urge tariff revision upon Congress, it is quite possible that there will be something like an upheaval in the Republican party. The Protective Tariff League and the Home Market Club will then be looking about for the most reactionary and blind protectionist "wholehogger" in public life, and their eye, Mr. Shaw aparently hopes, will naturally fall upon him. At any rate, his speech has much the effect of hanging a placard upon his breast, reading: "For undiluted tariff Bourbonism, apply within."

He says that he and the protectionist policy peculiarly address "the producer." This is an irresistible reminder of one of Dr. Johnson's colloquies: "Were not Dodd's sermons addressed to the passions?" "They were nothing, Sir, be they addressed to what they may." Secretary Shaw's reasonings and appeals are so behind the times, so off the facts of the actual situation, and so little in touch with the opportunities and the duties now confronting the country, that they can only be set down as foolishness, whether they be addressed to the producer or to his despised consumer. For he betrays no glimmering sense of the moral questions involved. He refers to the duties of 10 per cent. on cut diamonds, and the industry it has transferred to this country. Has he never heard of the evil results of the McKinley duty of 25 per cent. on cut diamonds—how it provoked smuggling on an enormous scale, and finally drove the dealers to admit that they had asked too much protection? That was before Mr. Shaw's term as Secretary, but such a student of the subject as he is should have known of the incident and reflected on its teachings. Yet the tariff as the mother of cheating and perjury seems never to have swum into his ken.

No more does he consider for a single moment the political and social mischief of the tariff, as it actually exists among us—that is, as secured by bribery, scrambled for as a piece of party favoritism or plunder, and, by its operation, intensifying class feeling, stimulating discontent, and making the way straight for socialism. Furthermore, the Secretary lisped not a syllable about the bearing of our protectionist system upon our relations to world markets and foreign nations—above all, just at present, to our dependent subjects in the Philippines. Almost at the very time when Mr. Shaw was speaking, the foremost Filipinos were appealing to Secretary Taft and the visiting Congressmen for a "square deal" on the tariff. By that they mean either greatly lowered duties or free trade. But if Secretary Shaw has his way, they will get the least square deal imaginable. His beatific vision is of a tariff that will keep everything foreign out, and maintain every product and necessary of life within our sacred Chinese wall at the dizziest of high prices.

In all that the Secretary says about screwing the cost of everything up to the highest possible level, and living happily ever afterwards, he has the air of a man emerging from a long stay in a cave. The sun is shining and he can only blink at it! We have so long and so unhappily made experiment of the protection which protects everybody, and then protects nobody. The result is an artificial state which is both precarious and perilous. When all are once jacked up together, the only question is when all will fall in a heap together. Yet, while we remain jacked up, everything gets capitalized at an artificially high figure. How this disables us in foreign competition has often been shown. And it is just the problem how to get our share of the world's trade which is now pressing hardest upon American manufacturers, leading to party revolts and upsets in New England, to reciprocity conventions and other forms of agitation for tariff revision in the West. Yet the Secretary of the Treasury has not a word to say about it. He appeals to the American producer to go on taxing himself rich, while what the said producer is crying out for is such a relief from tariff taxes as will enable him to compete in foreign markets. American production has outrun the infant stage. Mr. Shaw's cradle song is fearfully out of date. We are waking up to the great race for industrial supremacy which the leading nations of the world are entering upon, and we find ourselves too pursy and short of breath to run well. But when we propose to go into training and get rid of superfluous and embarrassing flesh, the Secretary of the Treasury tells us that our true wisdom is to go on gorging upon protection, and get fatter than ever.

HOW PHILADELPHIA WAS BLED.

The President's godspeed to Mayor Weaver, on Thursday, in the work of pulling down the gang that has made Philadelphia a synonym for corrupt municipal government, calls attention afresh to what is going on there. Just now the city is digesting a long affidavit made by a contractor who had been ruined and driven from Philadelphia by ring methods. The statement of this man, George C. Dietrich, casts a lurid light upon the ruthlessness of men who rule a city for what they can get out of it.

Dietrich was ruined because, in 1902, he underbid the firm of D. J. McNichol & Co., the ring's favorite contractors, for the job of building a pumping plant, a part of the great filtration system of Philadelphia. Successful on the first bid, Dietrich, who was outside the political breastworks, saw the plans altered, "to reduce the estimated cost," and the work readvertised. On a second bid he was again successful, his offer of $532,000 being $191,000 lower than McNichol's, and yet leaving, as he figured, a margin of $120,000 to protect himself against accidents and delays, and to provide a reasonable profit. But he had not figured on the cost of protecting himself against the persecution of the ring that was enraged at the loss of a good job. In the three years since he undertook the work, however, he has learned the price of opposing the men who have been perhaps the most successful followers of the Croker theory of municipal government that the country has produced.

In the first place, as his affidavit shows, Dietrich was told that a certain bonding company would furnish his bond to the city. A Philadelphia Councilman was the company's agent, and, after putting off the contractor for eight of the ten days in which the bond must be filed after the contract was signed, told him that the company had refused to stand behind him. Failure to file the bond in the ten days would have involved not only the loss of the contract, but of the $15,000 deposited with the bid. From another company Dietrich got a bond that the city had to accept, and it was then that he began to comprehend the difficulty of "raising doughnuts in a potato patch." John W. Hill, who was recently removed from office by Mayor Weaver, was the supervising engineer of the filtration plant. A tool of the gang who had sworn to "break Dietrich for butting in," Hill began by condemning some 5,400 barrels of cement really above the specified quality. In getting this decision reversed, Dietrich learned that he must buy his cement from a certain firm approved by the combine. In whatever direction the contractor turned, he found Hill blocking his way. To one of his inspectors, who was assigned to watch

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the building of the pumping station, Hill said: "Keep after that Dutchman [Dietrich]; you must nail him down to a hair." This injunction was obeyed. The "Dutchman" gives some details:

"I started to do the concrete work, and before doing so I purchased two McKilvery concrete mixers, and had them delivered at Lardner's Point. The two mixers were seen by John W. Hill a number of times before I started to use them. He made no objection, and allowed me to use the mixers until they became second hand and it was impossible for me to return them to the McKilvery people. After they had been used for a short while, Mr. Hill condemned the two concrete mixers, and allowed me to furnish and set up a Chambers concrete mixing machine.

"This he allowed me to use until it became second hand, and then said the other contractors were complaining because he was allowing me to use a Chambers machine, and that he would have to condemn it, and not allow me to use it any longer. On station No. 3, Ryan & Kelley's [an 'approved' firm] job, John W. Hill allowed the use of the same make of machine. So he insisted that I get a cube mixer. I bought a cube mixer, set it up, and ran it for about three weeks. After that was second hand, he said, 'Dietrich, you can mix your concrete by hand.' These concrete machines cost me upward of $5,000 set up. And all they are worth second hand is practically as old junk."

Hill's inspector, after reading the contractor's affidavit, declared the other day that the case had been understated. "In all my experience," he said, "I never knew of a contractor on a big operation to be so hampered, harassed, bullied, and annoyed as was Dietrich." But the baiting was effective; the contractor turned over the cement work to a subcontractor to whom he sold, at half-price, some sixteen carloads of limestone grit that Hill's inspectors had rejected. This material was immediately used by the sub-contractor, a man approved by the ring, and no inspector went near the work. Dietrich got into financial difficulties in January last. He found that he could not force a settlement with the city, and the bank from which he had borrowed money came to his assistance. "I agreed with the cashier," he says, "to have some one see Mr. Durham [then the unchallenged boss of the Philadelphia ring] in reference to a settlement." The man was found, and Durham was seen. The cashier reported that Durham said to the agent: "Had I known that your bank was interested in Dietrich, I would have told them to keep hands off." The result of Durham's intervention was that Hill agreed to approve the completed work provided Dietrich signed a waiver of all claims against him and the city. Pressed by creditors, and attacked openly by McNichol as incompetent, Dietrich left Philadelphia in July "for a few days' rest." "The losses I had sustained had almost driven me insane," he wrote to a creditor. He told a friend that he was to return about the 14th. His friend wired: "Stay where you are; your creditors are falling over themselves." So Dietrich gave up and went to Seattle.

The contractor's story has been verified in practically every particular; and it is expected that Mayor Weaver's investigators of the ring's methods will induce Dietrich to return and assist in the work of catching and jailing some of those buccaneers who so successfully allied "business" and politics in a corrupt and heedless city.

THE FUNCTION OF STATISTICS.

Philosophers have often bemoaned the slight effect which great mechanical inventions have had upon the moral betterment of mankind. Ruskin, in one of his typical jeremiads, deplores the fact that, while we refine, polish, and temper the metals, we are as backward as our forebears in all that makes for uplifting the human spirit or brightening the outlook of mankind. And Emerson sounded much the same note in his disparagement of the purely material progress of the age, where he accuses the space-defying telegraph of bearing "nothing on its beam."

One agency, however, which owes its being largely to the scientific tendency of our age, is often overlooked or underrated, despite the fact that its contribution to the sum of social improvement is by no means negligible. This agency is the compilation and application of statistics. It falls frequently, we must grant, into grave disrepute. Its early pretensions were often ludicrously excessive. It is perverted occasionally, as in the recent cotton report of the Agricultural Department, to base uses. But when all is said and done, it remains an indispensable aid to the intelligent legislator and to every serious student of social conditions. The railroad or the telegraph has transformed the conduct of business hardly more than have statistics the work of legislation and administration. These services were emphasized at the tenth session of the International Statistical Institute, recently held in London. A survey of the progress of statistics reveals the interesting fact that they are almost coeval with the century of great mechanical inventions. The steam engine is practically of the same age as this method of assessing the facts of society; and the great expansion of statistical activity is almost conterminous with the Victorian era, which witnessed the growth of banking, railways, telegraphs, and telephones. This industrial development may in reality be regarded as the stimulus of the science of statistics. It furnished most of the data to be scrutinized, and it made their analysis worth while.

The International Statistical Institute represents a movement for the essential improvement of this agency for social reform. The enhanced utility of the telegraph when the feasibility of an ocean cable was demonstrated is to be repeated, as it were, in the moral sphere by making scientific statistics no longer insular or continental, but universal. Students of comparative economic conditions know what difficulties are presented by the reduction of the statistics of different nations to a common basis. The different systems of classifying Governmental expenses in different States make comparative public finance still a matter largely of conjecture. Many of the papers presented at the recent sessions of the Institute have been devoted to just such attempted comparisons. City mortality, the classification of occupations, the methods of industrial remuneration, and the mutual relations of international trade have all illustrated the diversity of methods of computation. Foreign trade, in particular, would seem to demand some international coöperation if its statistics are ever to become satisfactory. It is not at all reassuring to have the British blue-books tell one story and our own Treasury statistics another. Collaboration in this domain would make statistical uniformity possible, not only in the valuations attached to merchandise imports and exports, but in the estimates of those more recondite factors in foreign trade such as freight charges, travellers' drafts, embassy and naval charges, interest remitted on foreign investments, and the like. These "invisible imports," as they have been called, will be dragged fully to light only by conjoint effort.

It is a fact of significance that the tone of professed statisticians nowadays is so restrained and yet so hopeful. In the bright lexicon of its youthful imaginings the case was far otherwise. It was supposed that a social physics was all but within our grasp, and sociology was to be added to the list of predictive sciences. There was often apparent a note of hardness, contemptuous of the age-long à-priori speculations on politics. It was somehow imagined that, through the agency of this new method, objective fact would impinge uncolored and undistorted on the mind. No reputable and thoughtful student of statistics would to-day hold a brief for that early conception of the function of the science. Curious as it appears, statistics can never be absolutely divested of the personal equation. They can never make even a beginning except by assumptions. Vital statistics illustrate the matter perfectly. It would seem as though birth-rates and death-rates could depend on nothing but accurate counting and properly calculated percentages. But at the outset some purely conventional treatment of still-births must be adopted. Whether they are counted among both births and deaths, or among one only, or discarded altogether, will make a very perceptible difference in the numerical results. Moreover, at the beginning it

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must be decided whether the percentage of births and deaths is to be computed on the basis of the initial population, or upon the basis of the population as its numbers are altered by these very processes.

Indeed, the very humility of statistics is its salvation. In the tangled web of social life there are so many inter-related strands of cause and effect that we can never hope wholly to disentangle any one thread and with absolute accuracy determine its influence. Statistics, however, indicate certain currents or streams of social tendency, and afford a basis of reasoning on the ground of probabilities, instead of leaving us to pure unverifiable conjecture.

It was a curious exemplification of the attitude of the modern scientific statistician to note how the obsolete and somewhat exaggerated note sounded by Mr. Leonard Courtney in his speech at the Lord Mayor's banquet was the target of quiet banter. Mr. Courtney said: "There was a poetry of statistics, and, if they had only got the gift divine, they would be able to see, in the arrays of figures which seemed so dull and uninviting, pictures of the movements of life as exciting and interesting as any poetry could contribute." To this Lord Onslow, for the statisticians, retorted good-naturedly: "Their work and duty was often termed dull. It was the business of the statistician to state facts, and the business of the statesman to made deductions from them. The facts were sometimes dull, but the inferences were almost always entertaining. [Laughter.] The statesman drew true inferences from the facts, but the politician, he regretted to say, often ventured into the realm of prophecy. [Laughter.]" It is a good omen that the newly born science acknowledges herself only a humble vestal in the Temple of Truth.

CRITICS OF THE CENSUS.

It has been pointed out by a preacher of a curious turn of mind that the only public evil charged against Satan in the Old Testament was the taking of a census. And it will be remembered that when "Satan stood up against Israel and provoked David to number Israel," the consequences to all concerned were dire in the extreme. In modern times, too, so much bad feeling, such endless recriminations, are left behind by the census man that the belief in Satanic influence is still very plausible.

This is the year for State censuses, half-way between the counts of the Federal Government. As a rule, the actual enumerations have now been completed, tabulated figures are just beginning to dribble from the various central offices, and from one locality after another rises the regular quinquennial howl of protest against the accuracy of the results, whatever they may be. A large proportion of the Massachusetts towns and the southern counties of Minnesota are among those registered as actually losing population; while Milwaukee and Portland (Oregon) are leading at present in the complaint that they are not credited with all the gains they have really made. Milwaukee admittedly had 285,315 residents in 1900 and Portland 90,426; now the State authorities give them respectively only 312,954 and 111,000. "Only 22 per cent. gain," sigh the Oregonians, while the idea that Milwaukee has added only 9 per cent. to its population in five years is too ridiculous for discussion. Des Moines, though a much smaller city than either of these complainants, has succeeded in obtaining a partial recount, and thereby raised its population at a stroke from 74,174 to 75,428, which not only entitles the city to be mentioned hereafter in the class of those "of 75,000 or over," but automatically increases the salaries of the mail carriers.

Arguments against the correctness of a given count are never lacking. First, and perhaps simplest, one can go out and discover persons who were not counted. Some of them will almost surely be persons of great consequence, whom the canvassers for the Social Register or even "Prominent and Progressive Men" would not have thought of skipping. Their omission, therefore, gives the chance for ridicule. "If they didn't see George W. Binks, what in the name of goodness could they have seen?" After thus casting a whimsical doubt on the competency of the enumerators, a more serious argument is presented in the shape of a computation based on the city directory. Milwaukee's directory, for instance, contains 24,637 more names this year than it did in 1900. "Is it possible," asks the publisher of this work, "that I should have found over 24,000 of the 27,000 people who are all the increase given us by this census?" After the directory argument come the ratios of school population, the number of new buildings put up, the postal receipts, the registration and vote, and, finally, the "careful estimates of conservative citizens."

It certainly does not behoove any city which, like New York, has had its noses counted this summer, but does not yet know how many were found, to make light of protests of this kind. We may be making one almost any day. If the State census should give this metropolis a paltry 200,000 gain, for instance, the welkin would be made to ring, without doubt. Boston, too, is anxiously awaiting an announcement of her growth, and would not take a disparaging showing in silence. A peculiarly reproachful tone is adopted when a census taken by the State itself has failed to do justice to its own communities. This summer wrangling, while perfectly natural and to be expected, is really a phenomenon of not a little import.

Population is, of course, a peculiarly tender point. Every city of 25,000 maintains a "Forty-Thousand Club," every city of 75,000 a "Hundred-Thousand Club"; Chicago has, we believe, a "Three-Million Club." And the census-taker can, with a single line of figures, blast or exalt the reputation of any of these praiseworthy organizations. But the notion that the function of official statistics is to aggrandize somebody or something has a far wider prevalence. What are a good proportion of the attacks on the Government's crop service but very thinly veiled assertions that the crop reports exist for the special purpose of getting the farmer high prices for his products? It is easy to trace the same doctrine into still further implications. Would Carroll D. Wright, for instance, have been applauded by the Republican Administration as a good and faithful servant if his famous report on "Wages and the Cost of Living," issued on the eve of a Presidential campaign, had shown that wages had not kept pace with the cost of living? No one has charged the deliberate falsification of statistics in the generality of the Government's work, yet the fact remains that the output of the various statistics-producing bureaus is regarded as a legitimate asset of the party in power, as much as the third-class postmasters.

If he is actuated by improper motives, the maker of statistics certainly has large indirect powers. It is not purely sentiment that makes Milwaukee fight against reduction from twelfth city to fourteenth, and Portland cling to her place as forty-second. But though we argue that such and such figures must be wrong, no one can say positively what they ought to be without doing the work over again, and that is usually out of the question. So the critics of the census are themselves vulnerable. One Milwaukee paper, which seems to be little concerned over the possible recount, asks: "Why would it not be a wise precaution to have the City Council pass an ordinance requiring the counters to find 350,000 people, flat? Or how would it do to decide by vote what the population of Milwaukee shall be?" Often ways almost as preposterous have been adopted to "make things come out right" by statisticians who knew beforehand what the result ought to be.

THE SAFETY OF SUBMARINES.

The discussion of the safety of the modern submarine has lately been raging on both sides of the Atlantic since the series of accidents of the last three or four months. In these mishaps, skeptics as to the usefulness of the submersible torpedo boat have seen a distinct limitation of the powers of such

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craft. They even hint at radical defects not yet discovered. The makers of the boat which sinks evenly on its own keel eagerly point out that the accidents have all occurred on vessels which dive headforemost when descending; and they have a very strong case. In England, two weighty authorities, Sir William White, for many years chief constructor of the British navy, and Capt. Bacon, R. N., who has lately been in charge of the English submarine tests, have been discussing the recent accidents; Capt. Bacon having read a striking paper on "The Causes of Accidents to Submarines and their Salvage" before the Institute of Naval Architects.

Capt. Bacon affirmed that dread of danger on submarines is far greater outside the King's navy than within. There is reason for this. When an accident does happen to a boat, the entire crew is generally lost, and under circumstances all the more distressing to the public because death in this new form permits of free play of the imagination. Yet the sufferings of the *Farfadet's* crew as they knocked hopelessly against the sides of their steel coffin and felt their air gradually giving out, were, after all, only what happens to hundreds of miners, of whose entombing and slow suffocation people read without unusual perturbation. In a navy, men are accustomed to take chances. A certain number meet with violent deaths every year, even in time of peace. There were 70 accidents to ships in the British navy in 1903 which cost lives in 27 cases; in 1902 there were 93 accidents, which resulted in 106 deaths. What counts is not so much the danger arising from the storing of great quantities of energy in an easily available form; the true measure of the peril is the skill required and the adequacy of the appliances used in emergencies. Capt. Bacon thinks that his service has done very well; its submarines have covered more than 30,000 miles with their own engines, and have had but three fatal accidents, of which only two may be properly regarded as peculiar to the nature and functions of the submarines, the third being due to an inexcusable violation of a perfectly simple regulation. Hence he reasons that submarine service is not exceptionally dangerous.

Of the two most serious English accidents, the court which investigated the *A8* disaster could find no reason for that boat's fatal dive to the bottom. The *A1* was sunk because water entered the boat after she was struck by a steamer, and this overcame the reserve of buoyancy which in this Holland type of boat seems to be altogether too small. The *A8* might have been saved had it been possible to close her hatch in time as she plunged. The entrance of water was also the reason for the loss of the French boat *Farfadet*, and of the Russian *Delfin*, which went down in the Baltic. It is not generally known that the American submarine *Porpoise* dove 120 feet to the bottom on the admission of water into her hull, and was almost miraculously saved from the fate of the *Farfadet*. These experiences may have led Rear-Admiral Melville to go on record to the effect that "the diving principle is wrong for a submarine boat. With such a form of construction you destroy longitudinal stability." Rear-Admiral O'Neil was quick to see that the admission of even a little water would overcome the small margin of reserve buoyancy. Collision, Capt. Bacon points out, ought to be avoided at any cost, because of inevitable leaks. In the case of the *A1*, the water found its way in under the conning tower, which will probably not occur again, owing to the adoption of a water-tight hatch at the base of the tower. In this English expert's opinion there is no excuse whatsoever for gasolene explosions. As to salvage operations, Capt. Bacon finds it not at all difficult to recover a boat sunk at a moderate depth; but to get her up in time to save the crew is another matter. This difficulty has led to the serious suggestion in Washington that our future submarines be built with strong eyelets at bow and stern, into which hooks could be placed by divers, thus permitting a derrick to lift the boat to the surface.

But even this arrangement presupposes the presence of divers and derrick. The builders of the Lake submersible boat claim that their boats do not need either. An advocate of this "submersible"—as opposed to the submarine or diving craft—makes in a letter to an English naval officer, recently published in the *Army and Navy Journal*, some very interesting statements about the relative safety of the two types. This anonymous expert, who has taken many dives in Holland boats, has always noticed a downward bow pull that increases with the speed and the depth of submergence. He does not think it possible to construct a diving boat which can be driven at a high rate when near the surface, on account of the difficulty of controlling it in a vertical plane. He explains that the submarine submerges by overcoming nearly all buoyancy through filling water ballast tanks until the centres of buoyancy and gravity are close together. When the boat is sufficiently "down by the head," she is forcibly submerged by going ahead under an electric motor and by means of a special horizontal diving-rudder gear. To control this properly and to keep the water-ballast tanks nicely adjusted requires expert skill.

According to its owners' claim, the Lake submarine sinks on an even keel through symmetrically disposed hydroplanes and great longitudinal stability. Moreover, it is asserted that, in the event of an accidental submergence owing to negative buoyancy, a drop keel can be released, and the craft thus brought to the surface automatically. Should this contrivance fail, the crew can at least escape through the diving chamber, which is watertight, and can be opened only from inside the boat when it is closed on the outside. Finally, the Lake boat appears still safer because it carries its gasolene in a superstructure isolated from the inner hull, in which have occurred the explosions, which Capt. Bacon thinks unnecessary, in boats of the other type. We have already pointed out that the French naval authorities, the leaders in underwater work, have definitely abandoned the submarine in favor of the submersible. We have not yet been able to find out, however, why the Lake boat so eagerly snapped up abroad never could get from our own naval authorities an adequate test. A board of American army officers has pronounced it the "nearest approach to absolute perfection known." But Congress or our naval authorities stick to the less safe type—a fact more striking in view of the Holland boat scandal in Congress of two years ago.

GERMANY AND ENGLAND.

The friends of peace in both England and Germany—which means also the friends of humanity, of education, of research, of progressive civilization—have awakened, none too early, to the need of counteracting the men and agencies that would embroil the two countries. There has been something like a propaganda of war on both sides. The *National Review*, for reasons of its own, has been for months harping on Germany as the one malignant enemy of England; while the London *Times* and the *Morning Post* and lesser Tory newspapers have given too frequent expression to the same idea. In Germany, of course, there have not been wanting army Hotspurs to give the English as good as they sent, in the way of threats, while a part of the press has equalled the English journals referred to in petty misrepresentation and nagging. Bad feeling was steadily being heightened by these tactics, and it was time that serious minds in either nation should set about showing what were their real sentiments.

Mr. Bryce's public statement on the subject last week must have a marked effect in both countries. He spoke not merely for himself. His deliberate utterance was made only after consultation with leading public men in both parties, and with others who stand for what is best in Great Britain; and he solemnly assured German inquirers that no English politician of standing, no leader in any department of English thought, had the slightest idea of a war with Germany, or could contemplate its

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advocacy by reckless writers with anything but abhorrence and dismay. Such a voice must carry far.

On their side, enlightened Germans have been doing their part to frustrate the mischief-makers. After his visit to England last year, Professor Paulsen wrote an article in the *Rundschau*, deprecating the rash words too freely used in the press of either empire, and breathing the heartiest good will and most ardent love of peace. He was, of course, well fitted to speak for the learned world of Germany. Even more significant, however, is a paper by Professor Delbrück in the August number of the *Preussische Jahrbücher*. Delbrück is precisely one of those professors whom the English Teutophobes have accused of wishing to "educate" Germany up to the point of attacking England. But what does the implacable enemy say? Why, that an Anglo-German war could have but one issue—"ruin for victor and vanquished alike." He goes on: "I venture to say that the greatest misfortune that could befall Germany, next to a defeat in a war with England, would be a victory over England—indeed, one might say that a victory over England would be a still greater misfortune for us than a defeat." His reason is that all other countries would at once unite against Germany. He roundly affirms:

> "Nothing is more false than to suppose that amongst German well-educated people and at the German universities real hostility against England is nurtured, as is declared far and wide to be the case by the harrying press in England, and, as I have heard from English friends, is in reality believed in England. Expressions about this alleged hostility that are repeated in England are in great part misrepresentations or pure and simple untruths, which the English press refuses to rectify."

Taking up the specific allegation that Germany is now aiming at "the supremacy of the North Sea," Professor Delbrück disposes of it in (as it must seem to the English Jingoes) the most heartless fashion. There can be no such thing, he affirms. Supremacy in the North Sea is, strategically, only a part of supremacy in the Atlantic Ocean. The latter, England unquestionably has. Germany could not hope to dispute it now, or for many years to come. Hence the cry of endangered supremacy in the North Sea is simply an artful diversion on the part of the *National Review*. It knows that none of its readers would believe it if it said that the Germans were preparing to beat the English at sea, so it limits the peril to the North Sea, where the Emperor is to build "special fleets," etc. But Delbrück tears the straw out of that bogey. Supremacy at sea means supremacy in all parts of the sea.

After the recent meeting of the Society of Friends at Leeds, a public letter was sent to the "Friedensfreunde" in Germany. In it there was the strongest repudiation of the efforts of "certain politicians and editors, in your country as well as ours, to sow the seeds of distrust between us." Not simply as Quakers, but as citizens, the Society desire to give Germans the most solemn assurance that, no matter what irresponsible writers or speakers might say, anything like an unprovoked attack upon Germany by England was absolutely impossible. These statements were commented upon in a friendly spirit by the German press; the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* remarking that all such advances would be hailed in Germany with outspoken satisfaction. Evidently, it is just as easy to call out international good feeling as craftily to provoke international enmities.

Let it not be imagined, however, that all this will have any effect upon the Jingoes, except to exasperate them. What do they care for mere professors? How much respect have they for the exponents of religious sentiment? With Hamlet, they regard all thoughts that are not bloody as nothing worth. They are the only true patriots. In them alone resides the gift of far-sightedness. All the secrets of strategy and world-policy are locked up in their capacious brains. So they will doubtless go on as before. It is one of the terrible things about those who plot and plan for war that they snap their fingers at the men whom, in all other provinces of life, the nation would be disposed to follow. The Bryces, the Delbrücks—why, any naval lieutenant big with "strategy," or the most insignificant wielder of the journalistic "we," is entitled to brush aside their opinions, their advice, their warnings, as of no account. But the demonstration has been made. If anything were needed to accentuate the madness of a war between Germany and England it would be the clear proof which we now have that the thinkers, the scholars, the real publicists of both nations regard the causes of difference and friction as infinitesimal, compared with the reasons for a hearty and fruitful friendship.

THE ALIENS ACT.

LONDON, August 9, 1905.

The Aliens Bill will seemingly, by the time this letter reaches New York, have become the Aliens Act, 1905. No measure of less immediate importance but of more significance as a sign of the times, has ever been passed by the Imperial Parliament. It is the outward manifestation of a new spirit; it is the outcome of a widespread belief, the strength of which is proved not more by the action of the Government than by the inaction or acquiescence of the Opposition, that some check ought to be placed on the hitherto unrestricted flow of foreigners into England; and this belief itself is the offspring of changed circumstances and of new sentiments. The time has passed away when both philanthropists and politicians accounted immigrants as accession to the strength of the country. Men already imagine that the world is too small; you may love your neighbors, but you may easily have too much of them, especially if they are paupers. "The fewer the better cheer," is growing into a maxim of popular statecraft. If this is so at the beginning of the twentieth century, how will civilized nations regard the influx of foreigners at the end of the twenty-first, or of the twenty-second century? The inquiry excites painful misgivings. The civilized world is clearly coming face to face with a most serious problem, and one who notes the current of opinion may, without being a pessimist, dread the approach of even an apparent conflict between patriotism and philanthropy. These are not times when any man would readily depart from the traditional maxims of public spirit and humanity; and the Aliens Bill of 1905 marks changes in English policy and opinion which it is difficult to notice without some apprehension.

First, the bill introduces a revolution in the traditional policy of England. This country has hitherto welcomed the arrival of foreign settlers. Whether we may accurately talk of a "right of asylum" is an inquiry of academical interest, fit for the discussion of professorial jurists or for subtle examination by any Minister who is a master of logomachy rather than an effective leader of men. But if we set aside verbal quibbles or refinements, one must admit that all sorts and conditions of men have, for many generations, been allowed to settle in England, and that the children of such settlers have, in virtue of their birth, become subjects of the British Crown, and, as far as descent goes, have been entitled to the full rights and privileges of Englishmen. Nor can any one deny, either, that free immigration has been a benefit to the English people, or that this freedom is curtailed by the Aliens Bill. The measure, therefore, is, in principle at least, a revolution in national policy.

Secondly, the Aliens Bill is, for good or bad, part of a movement for the protection of British industry. The bill is, indeed, supported by many persons who honestly repudiate a protective tariff, but it certainly commends itself to every consistent Protectionist. Mr. Chamberlain's fiscal policy does not enlist my sympathy, but no one can deny to him the possession of several high qualities not often found among modern English statesmen. One of these is the habit of speaking out his mind with reckless clearness. His position with regard to the Aliens Bill has been made as clear as day. He lays little, if any, stress upon many of the objections taken to the free admission of foreigners. He supports the bill because it is a step in the direction of Protection. He argues that if the principle be admitted that the working classes must be protected by law against competition with the labor of underpaid foreign immigrants, the conclusion will soon be drawn that the English workman must be protected from competition with goods made abroad by underpaid foreign laborers. Restraint on free immigration will lead, he conceives, to restraint on free importation; if the interests of English workingmen demand interference with the free immigration of laborers, it

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also, holds Mr. Chamberlain, justifies interference with free trade.

Thirdly, the bill, and still more the debates to which the bill has given rise, betray and stimulate some alarming alterations of public opinion. This country still, for example, desires to provide an asylum for political refugees; but sensitive sympathy with the wrongs of exiles fleeing from oppression at home, which fifty years ago was entertained by all classes of Englishmen, and especially by our artisans, has lost much of its intensity. Nor is this change of feeling hard to explain. The modern exile smells too strong of dynamite. Assassination savors more of murder than of warfare, and is an arm used as often against the best as against the worst of rulers. The course of events, too, has increased the sense of international obligation, and the dogma that "crime is local" is now felt to belong to a barbarous age. But a change which may be justified may nevertheless beget new evils. It would be a bad day for England, and for the world, if the mass of the English people became insensible to the presumption in favor of foreigners who resist oppression, or if English workingmen ceased to admire heroes such as Garibaldi. It excites some serious fears to find that when Mr. Atherley Jones, a Radical of the old school, protests against any measure by which political refugees might be excluded from our shores, he still meets, indeed, with some support, but is clearly felt to be speaking the language of a bygone age.

The debates, again, on the bill, combined with other circumstances, raise an uncomfortable suspicion that zeal for religious liberty has waxed somewhat cool. The ardor with which the Liberals of 1830, who had inherited the best ideas of the eighteenth century, preached the doctrine of toleration, had by the middle of the nineteenth century produced the most salutary effects. No class gained more from this popularization of toleration than did the English Jews, and no country was more amply rewarded than was England for the gradual opening of all careers to our Jewish fellow-citizens. Of the violent anti-Semitism which has embittered public and private life throughout the Continent, we have in England, one is thankful to say, known little or nothing. It is impossible, however, not to notice (though the matter is one which an English writer must touch upon with extreme reluctance) symptoms of a slight though ominous change of popular sentiment. Of recent years anti-Semitism has on rare occasions —and only, it is true, in one or two parts of the United Kingdom—led to acts of public and oppressive violence. A disagreeable warning has been given that toleration is a virtue which does not always command popular sympathy, and that the national executive must be prepared, at every moment, to check with instant severity any inroad made by mobs on each man's right to perfect religious freedom. Boycotting takes its most odious form when it is combined with persecution. There is, however, something in the tone of the day which assuredly suggests that the Aliens Bill of 1905 may be found to stimulate sentiments of racial and religious hostility. No doubt the bill does not originate in anti-Semitic fanaticism, but the constant reference to the evil of admitting to England Polish and German Jews has an ugly sound.

The defenders of the measure are perplexed how to deal with this topic. They express, no doubt with sincerity, their abhorrence of religious intolerance. They pay deserved tributes to the lavish and touching generosity with which rich Jews support their poorer co-religionists and prevent the necessity of their applying for parochial relief. Yet apologists for the bill are almost of necessity placed in this dilemma: if the Aliens Bill does not restrict the immigration of German or Polish Jews, it will fail to meet the wishes of such English workmen as desire a change in the present law. If it does restrict the settlement of Jewish aliens who are admittedly supported, or found employment, by English Jews from the moment of their arriving in England, then the intimation, sometimes thrown out, that Jews will not practically come within the operation of the bill, is misleading. In any case, it is very difficult to believe that the measure, even as it stands, will not do something, though one hopes not much, to stimulate or sanction anti-Semitic sentiment among the poorer members of the community. The practical effect of the measure must be very small, but its moral effects may be considerable.

Here we touch on the weakest point of this bill, as of many other proposals now laid before Parliament. As a law it must be ineffective. If it is to attain its end, its provisions must receive vast extensions; but as a precedent and an example it may in the long run have vast and most dubious results. It inaugurates a thorough-going revolution in the traditional policy of the country; it marks a step on the path which leads towards Protection; it may, especially if it becomes the parent of more stringent measures, stimulate a form of religious intolerance which is abhorrent to every liberal-minded Englishman. The English public have not yet mastered the elementary truth that the main importance of laws lies in their effect upon public opinion.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

VENEZUELA CONCESSIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your paper of July 20 you had a notice of the dispute between the Bermudez Company and Venezuela. I was more or less connected with Venezuela from 1853 to 1890; spent much of my active life there; travelled over it from the Atlantic to the Andes, and the Caribbean Sea to the basin of the Essequibo River; knew its people, its politics, and its history. I think it will be found that every contract, or concession, issued from the ministry of "Fomento" (which department has control of all interior development), winds up with a clause to the effect that all disputes as to the operation, or interpretation, of this concession shall be decided by the Supreme Court of the republic, and shall in no wise become the subject of any diplomatic or international interference. I have the exact wording of this clause somewhere among my papers, if it is of interest to you.

Concessions have, I think, invariably been accepted with this agreement, fairly stated, and I do not see how the Government at Washington can take any action—at least, so long as it treats diplomatically with Venezuela as a civilized, independent Power. The remedy lies deeper.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

J. B. AUSTIN.

SANTA BARBARA, CAL., August 5, 1905.

HOT BREAD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was born and raised in Vermont, on cold bread. I can remember that even the raised biscuits for the ladies of the Sewing Circle were always allowed to cool before being offered to the guests. I was for several years a sufferer from dyspepsia. Very soon after circumstances had led me into the habit of eating hot bread one or two times a day, I recovered from the dyspepsia. This is a lovely *non-sequitur*, I know; but I don't offer the fact as a serious argument for hot-bread eating, as "P. Q. R." does his mortality figures for the cold-bread habit, in the *Nation* for July 27. I do think, however, that well-made hot bread is very wholesome.

J. C. D.

August 8, 1905.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of July 27, 1905, is a letter headed "Hot Bread," in which the question is asked, "whether it is not hot bread that is responsible for the too early taking off of the population of the South?" In the Columbia, Mo., *Herald* for July 28, 1905, this question is asked, "Is it because of hot biscuits or despite hot biscuits that Missourians are born more numerously and die less rapidly than the citizens of other States!" The question comes at the end of a paragraph headed, "Why It Is Better to Live in Missouri," and beginning:

"Hot biscuit is one reason—indeed it is several. Bread is the staff of life. Man may live on toast, crackers, cornbread, crullers, anything into which cereal enters as the chief constituent. Mere living, however, does not satisfy the Missourian. He insists on hot biscuit. Three times a day is his accustomed average, though by the perversity of cooks and because of other reasons he does not always attain the average. The editor of a great Eastern magazine visited the home of a rural Missourian this month. The editor had been born in Maine and brought up—'raised,' in the Missouri vernacular—in Massachusetts. The good housewife thought to please her guest, so beside the usual hot biscuit she placed a plate of light bread—or simply bread, as he called it. It was observed, however, that the editor ate only hot biscuit. 'While I am a New Englander,' he said in explanation, 'my soul loatheth that light bread.'"

Yours truly,

S. T. U.

COLUMBIA, MO., August 5, 1905.

Notes.

The seventh edition of that excellent and most handy compilation, 'The International Directory of Booksellers and Libraries, and Bibliophile's Manual' (Rochdale, Eng.: James Clegg), will be ready for publication in October next. The scope is more comprehensive than the title, as lists of publishers, learned and scientific societies, theological colleges, book-illustrators, and

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noms de plume revealed, are supplied. The renewal is prompt, only two years having elapsed since the sixth edition.

With keen delight we welcome a new edition of Mr. Arthur H. Norway's 'Naples, Past and Present' (Methuen & Co.), a work almost beyond praise. Scholarly, trustworthy and beautifully written, learned but never dull, it fulfils and more than fulfils its professed object of serving "not as a guide, but as supplementary to a guide." History, religion, legend, folk-lore, art—nothing is omitted; and so vivid are the descriptions that, as we read, we can almost see the figs blackening in the sunshine, and hear the scent-laden breezes rustling through the myrtle groves. Unquestionably, the next best thing to visiting Naples is to buy this book. So excellent is it that we are strongly tempted not to criticise the one thing criticisable. Truth, however, compels us to remark that the proofreading of the "List of Illustrations" appears to have been very careless. It contains such solecisms as "Porta Capuano," "Strada di Tribunali," and "Vittorio Emmanueli"!—mistakes, be it noted, which find no counterpart in the body of the work. *That* is all which could be desired.

Mr. John Bigelow's 'Life of Benjamin Franklin' (Lippincott) has reached a fifth edition, and is issued as "revised and enriched." Since the first appearance of this entertaining work, distinguished as it was by using the Autobiography for the first time, many new discoveries have been made concerning Franklin's career. As editor of Franklin's writings, Mr. Bigelow enjoyed an unusual opportunity for obtaining items, more or less important, that had escaped the notice of previous editors. Some of this material is embodied in his new edition of the 'Life,' and much has been omitted as unsuited to a running account of the man's career and work. So far as the additions depend upon documentary evidence, they certainly enrich the volumes, and it is a pity that the editor did not confine his attention to such matters. Unfortunately, he prides himself upon a belief that Franklin wrote the speech which has long passed as a composition of Jonathan Shipley, and he regards this as the most important addition to the 'Life.' The evidence he submits is not conclusive, although it is interesting to see how he has used a few sentences in different letters to support his case. There is no good reason for believing that Franklin more than suggested certain points or arguments, and the speech attained too wide a circulation and notoriety to permit the question of authorship to be disputed. Some portraits have been added, and the inclusion of so many letters of Franklin and his friends makes the volumes a storehouse for readers and investigators.

In this connection we note the first issue, by an English publisher, of Franklin's Autobiography, with an account of his later life by William Macdonald (London: Dent). The text is, of course, that used by Bigelow, and the editor seeks to describe Franklin as the "*complete citizen—of his city, his country, and the world.*" The task is superficially done, and is marred by the strong prejudices of the writer. In outward appearance it is the most satisfactory of all editions of the Autobiography.

A new edition of A. K. McClure's 'Our Presidents and How We Make Them' has been published by Harper & Brothers. The illustrations consist of portraits of twenty-five Presidents and of the author, whose politico-journalistic career is well known. The book, with its full record of platforms and votes, is brought down to the present time, and includes the Roosevelt-Parker canvass of 1904. The author's running account of the contest itself, as in other cases, is marked by impartiality. All these summaries, if not very critical in tone, are readable and to the point.

'The Men Who Made the Nation' (Macmillan), by Edwin Erle Sparks, is an outline of United States history from 1760 to 1865 on a new plan. It consists of short biographical sketches of a dozen men about whose lives the events of our history have grouped themselves, beginning with Franklin and ending with Lincoln. These lives are written entertainingly, and illustrated with many reproductions of contemporary prints, sketches, facsimiles, and caricatures. The author has confined himself to political men, most of whom in their time held high office, but his list also includes Horace Greeley, whom, as a journalist, he regards as a maker of that public opinion which was to determine the fate of slavery. A good many pages are given to Robert Morris, "the financier of the Revolution," and, on the whole, thanks to the author's lively style, we get, in a very small compass, a better history than many a historian with a more ambitious method might have produced.

Having already referred to the new and beautiful reprint of 'Purchas His Pilgrimes' (Glasgow: MacLehose; New York: Macmillan), we need say little in announcing the publication of the third and fourth volumes. The narratives embraced by this instalment of the work relate to the East Indies, and contain, besides their record of seafaring experience, a good deal of information about the court of the Great Mogul. The names of Sir Henry Middleton and Nicholas Downton are familiar to all who have examined the early letters of the East India Company, while Sir Thomas Roe's journal has recently been edited for the Hakluyt Society. The writings of these and many other pioneers of Eastern trade or diplomacy who come within the range of 'Purchas' possess a special degree of interest at the present time.

'Memoirs of a Royal Chaplain, 1729-1763' (John Lane) contains a series of letters from Edmund Pyle, D.D., to his friend and former tutor at Cambridge, Dr. Samuel Kerrich, with liberal annotations throughout by the editor, Mr. Albert Hartshorne. Pyle (1702-1776) was an adherent of Bishop Hoadly, who helped him to the chaplaincy about 1740, and to other preferments; he was Archdeacon of York and Prebend of Winchester from 1756. A man of the world and of his time, his interest was in the politics of Church and State; art, science, and literature make little figure in his epistles, and Wesley and Methodism are beneath his notice. He writes with no waste of words, with great frankness, and with pretty full and accurate information, as to a large range of externals; so that the letters are valuable for the display not of a specially elevated or attractive clerical character, but of the facts and feelings of that age from the point of view of a minor ecclesiastical politician. Of jealousies and of "graft" there is a plenty, and of deeper currents little or nothing. "The poor-spirited old man of Lambeth" (Archbishop Potter), he tells us in 1747, had twice asked and been refused audience; "at length he obtained it, but had better been without it," for George II. called him "a man of a little dirty heart," whereat the heart is supposed to have broken. Mr. Hartshorne seems to have the English affairs of the eighteenth century at his fingers' ends, and explains or enlarges whatever his author left scanty or obscure. He also furnishes a short sketch of Pyle, a long one of Kerrich, and an index of twenty pages.

The somewhat undignified title of 'Johnny Reb and Billy Yank' (The Neale Publishing Co.) represents an exceedingly well-written and good-tempered account of experiences in the Confederate ranks during the whole of the civil war. Mr. Alexander Hunter, clearly of admirable social and personal antecedents, was carried away by his impulses (or principles) when a very young student of the University of Virginia, and he did his best, first in the infantry and then in the cavalry, to make it uncomfortable for the Army of the Potomac. That he wasn't killed as well as seriously wounded seems to have been no fault of his own, and his adventures, which covered a wide range, are vividly as well as modestly told. It is a brilliant military autobiography by an intelligent enlisted man; and it would have been better for the Lost Cause had he and more of his equals been commissioned. Mr. Hunter is fairly entitled to his views as to the failure of the Confederacy, and he briefly summarizes the causes thus: Mr. Davis as President and his favorites as generals; the imbecility of the Confederate Congress; the death of Stonewall Jackson; giving Early an independent command; the irrational management of the War Department; the failure to arm the slaves, with freedom as their reward. Per contra, the producing power was not materially depleted for fighting purposes, and, except "President Davis's rows," there was no dissension among the Southern leaders, as was conspicuously the case at the North. Mr. Hunter thinks the Army of Northern Virginia would never have been vanquished had not the United States navy maintained a sealing blockade. The index is far too meagre, and there are many lapses in the proofreading of proper names.

'Southern Writers,' edited by W. P. Trent (Macmillan), is a volume of selections designed primarily for school and college classes in the South. The editor deprecates the inference that it is to be regarded as "a sectional product in the unpleasant sense of that term"; the literature of the South is part of the history of the South, and as the one is studied, so should the other be. The volume is intended to furnish supplementary reading and information which teachers can use in connection with other work. The editor modestly speaks of his task as having proved "not inconsiderable." As he has managed to get into his volume, in addition to the selections, sketches of more than eighty writers and public men (George Washington and Jefferson Davis are both on his list), we should be inclined to apply a stronger term. There are three periods—first, the literature of the Colonies (1607-1789); second, the literature of the Old South (1790-1865); third, the literature of

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the New South (1866-1904). Poe is treated as a Southern writer, by virtue of his Maryland ancestry, though he was born in Boston and was not, in any true sense, a local writer. The book is open to the criticism that it tends to foster the provincial illusion that the larger the number of names the greater the repute of the locality. For reference it is valuable, and appears to be well done.

Princeton University has, all these years, been without a guide-book, except so far as a two-volume history, more than twenty years old, may be so regarded. Mr. John Rogers Williams has now supplied this lack in 'The Handbook of Princeton' (The Grafton Press), which in very good taste describes most of the interesting objects and places of patriotic association in that university town of Revolutionary memories. The continuous growth of the great institutions makes it difficult to keep the record strictly in accord with the conditions, but, except in one or two very minor matters, the accounts here given are accurate and sympathetic. The book is fully illustrated for the eye of the absent. The reader might prefer a more copious index, and the writer probably regrets that he, or the Grafton proofreader, allowed the types to speak of Jonathan Edwards as a great physicist (p. 126), when he must have meant metaphysicist!).

The series of "Persian Historical Texts," happily inaugurated in 1901 by Dawlatshah's 'Tadhkiratu 'sn-Shu'ara,' or 'Memoirs of the Poets,' published by Professor Browne of Cambridge (Eng.), the general editor of the series, finds a worthy continuation in the 'Tadhkiratu 'l-Awliya,' or 'Memoirs of the Saints,' by Faridu 'd-Din 'Attar, edited by Reynold A. Nicholson, lecturer in Persian in the University of Cambridge. This Iranian mystic of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries is, perhaps, best known by his pantheistic poem of the "Mantiqu 't-Tair," or "Bird-Parliament," edited and translated in French by Garcin de Tassy and abridged in English verse by Edward FitzGerald; but far more important as a history of Persian esoterism is his 'Memoirs of the Saints.' This treatise contains in the majority of the manuscripts seventy-two biographies of eminent Sufis, supplemented by some twenty-five lives of mystics of a later period. The volume under consideration includes forty of these biographies, the remainder being reserved for the second portion of the work. Treatises on Sufi philosophy are only too scarce. The 'Ssufismus' of Tholuck is antiquated, and Palmer's 'Oriental Mysticism' is extremely rare, so that almost the only books accessible are three brief studies by Ethé, a dissertation by Frank, and the chapters by Pizzi and Browne in their histories of Persian literature, while the single Iranian text generally available is Whinfield's edition and translation of Shabistari's 'Gulshan-i-Raz,' or 'Rose-Garden of Mystery.' The present volume, therefore, is a most valuable contribution to our knowledge of one of the chief systems of Oriental mysticism. It is much to be hoped that the series, which is admirably printed in the Beirut type, will ultimately include some of the more modern "tadhakir," such as the 'Haft Iqlim' or the 'Atash Kadah.' All lovers of Oriental literature will wish the series success.

Volumes xxiii. and xxiv. of the New Jersey Archives (First Series) are respectively a calendar of New Jersey wills and kindred papers, recorded or unrecorded (1670-1730), and preserved at Trenton; and a further body of extracts from newspapers chiefly of New York and Philadelphia, touching New Jersey affairs (1672-1765). The volume of abstracts of wills possesses much value from a personal and genealogical point of view, and has prefixed an elaborate introduction by Mr. William Nelson, corresponding secretary of the New Jersey Historical Society. It is thoroughly indexed, as is also volume xxiv., which even more strikingly embodies the social customs and conditions of the period. Here we see the foreign slave trade in active operation, with landings and sales on the Delaware. And an advertisement of such a sale of fresh importations in May, 1762, contains this notice: "It is generally allowed that the Gambia slaves are much more robust and tractable than any other slaves from the Coast of Guinea, and more capable of undergoing the severity of the winter seasons in the North American Colonies; which occasions their being vastly more esteemed and coveted in this province and those to the Northward than any other slaves whatsoever."

Nothing is more striking in volume x. of the sixth edition of 'Meyer's Grosses Konversations-Lexikon' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) than the increased space accorded to Japan. As compared with Italy, which gets 44 pages (inclusive of 12 on the literature), Japan has 25 (with 5 of these devoted to literature and art); and the Russo-Japanese war is still to be treated in its own alphabetical place. In the fourth edition of Meyer, 1887, the respective spaces were: Italy, 52; Japan, 16. There is no pro-Russian bias visible in the statement of the relations of the two countries antecedent to the war. There is an unusually attractive collection of maps. The article on Canalization calls for one of the Kaiser-Wilhelm Canal, and the map of Kiel and its harbor shows the eastern end of this national waterway, while a general map records the whole German system. Under Cameroon and the Cape, African interests are catered to; Japan and Russia touch in maps of the island Empire and of the Caucasus, while Germany's intervening hand appears in Kiaochau Bay and the city of Tsinglau. Italy calls for diverse maps. Cairo and Jerusalem along with Karlsruhe and Carinthia are cartographically depicted. Finally, some delicately colored plates illustrate the article on Ceramics.

Pari passu with the foregoing and from the same publishers proceeds 'Meyer's Hand-Atlas,' with parts 13-18. Maps of North America, of the Dominion, of the United States in two sections, and of the Philippines occur, among others, in this instalment; and one of Sweden and Norway, with Denmark, has a timely interest. Add a map of Japan, and one of London and its suburbs, from Harrow to Barking and from Bromley to Tottenham.

Attention should be called to a delightful résumé to be found in a recent issue of *Science* of the argument against the theory of evolution. The writer in *Science* has taken the trouble to reduce to exact form this counter-position as it exists in the mind of a professor in the Drew Theological Seminary, as set forth by him in a recent article, and as usually taught, doubtless, in that institution and others of the same class. It is a masterpiece of delicious unreason, and should be preserved, by those who are interested in logic, as a specimen of the lengths to which human inconsecutiveness can go.

The July number of the *Mayflower Descendant* (Boston) records the speedy appearance, with Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s imprint, of Mr. Morton Dexter's work, 'The England and Holland of the Pilgrims,' which was originally undertaken by the late Rev. Henry M. Dexter, was completed by Prof. F. B. Dexter of Yale, and has been rewritten by the present editor. He, by the way, has had a hand in photographing, copying, and translating the *Mayflower* marriage records at Leyden and Amsterdam. One may see in this July number the Dutch script of the record for Degory Priest and Isaac Allerton, with printed text and English version. Six others will follow, one monthly.

The first number of a German journal devoted to the study of modern English words, entitled *Bausteine*, has just been received. The editors are Leon Kellner and Gustav Krüger, and the enterprise has the support of the Neuphilologischer Verein of Vienna. According to the plan announced a year ago, the scope of the journal includes the following divisions: long articles on the vocabulary of single writers and of separate departments of knowledge and on the use of separate words, the explanation of difficult passages in English books, a bibliography (in charge of Dr. Brotanek), reviews, and book notices, and, finally, a department of questions and answers. The principal articles in the first number, both in German, are by Dr. Kellner on "Suggest, Suggestive, Suggestions," and by Helene Richter on "Chatterton's Rowley-Sprache." The first impression of the new journal is decidedly favorable: the treatment is scientific, the proofreading (a matter of special importance in a journal of this kind) is careful, few errors having been noted, and the mechanical execution is excellent. English readers will rejoice over the use of Roman script, and all students will heartily endorse the index which will be included in the final *Heft* each year. The subscription for the six parts that will form the year's issue is 18 marks, and the publishers are the Langenscheidtsche Verlagsbuchhandlung of Berlin.

In the annual report of the Essex Institute (Salem, Mass.) for the year ending May 1, 1905, we read of the acquisition of a copy of Hawthorne's 'Fanshawe,' a great rarity, and an autograph letter by the same writer—oddly enough the first to come into the Institute's possession. More important is the announcement of the actual printing of an index to the first 40 volumes of the Institute's Historical Collections, and that the initial volume of the Rev. William Bentley's Diary, filling 550 pages, is in the hands of the printer. This thesaurus has long been known to antiquaries. It is the product of a mind at once full of book learning and interested in a great variety of subjects for observation and study. It extends from the close of the Revolution to Dr. Bentley's death in 1819, and is for Salem a sort of family Bible. His eccentric character is pictorially portrayed in the July

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number of the Institute's Historical Collections, as well as by reprints of Judge Waters's historical East Church address in 1868 and of the remarkably graphic and humorous address of Miss Marguerite Dalrymple, given from memory without notes in 1897, when this lady was in her eighty-seventh year.

The British Museum was visited in 1904, according to the annual blue-book just issued, by nearly a million people, of whom 226,323 were students. Among the more important additions to the Library were sixty-seven English books printed before the year 1640; and to the series of incunabula, or books printed before 1510, fifty-eight foreign examples. Among the noticeable accessions to the manuscripts is Philip Massinger's drama "Believe as You List," written throughout in the author's own hand; almost the only extant holograph drama by any of the great Elizabethan writers. Add the autograph of Keats's "Hyperion," already published in facsimile. Other autographs of historic interest are "Memorandum, by Lord Wellington, on the Campaign in the Peninsula in 1811, drawn up for the English Government at the end of the year, and written wholly in his own hand," and "Letter of Benjamin Franklin to P. Collinson on the advantage of free trade."

The meeting of the British Association at Cape Town and Johannesburg, the third held outside of the mother country in the more than seventy years of its existence, promises greatly to advance our knowledge of South Africa, as the majority of papers and addresses will present scientific subjects from the South African point of view. Prof. G. H. Darwin, in his presidential address, proposes to consider evolution in the world of matter as distinct from the world of life. Sir William Crookes is expected to lecture on diamonds, Dr. Haddon on the anthropology of the country, Col. Bruce on the causation and prevention of stock diseases as well as on the sleeping sickness; others upon the evolution of gold production, the geologic history of the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi, etc. At the joint meeting of the geologic and geographic sections Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard is expected to take part. Not least interesting or useful will be the work of the educational section, which, though of recent institution, is already firmly established. The president, Sir Richard Jebb, will show the growing importance of university education as a factor in the life and development of the nation, with special reference to the conditions which exist in South Africa. Other subjects are rural education as applied to colonial life, the higher education of women, and the important question of native education. The burning question of the day in Johannesburg does not seem to be approached except in two papers on the life history of colored laborers in the Transvaal. We must not omit to record among the distinguished company bound for the Cape Dr. J. A. H. Murray, chief of the Oxford English Dictionary, who, not without a wrench, we must believe, thus takes his first real holiday in a quarter of a century.

—The Library Board of the Virginia State Library has done well in publishing the 'Journals of the House of Burgesses of Virginia, 1773-1776, including the records of the Committee of Correspondence.' This is an admirable beginning of a plan that contemplates a full issue of as many of the Journal records as can be found, and will prove a most valuable addition to the legislative and personal history of Virginia. Many documents and proclamations are used to illustrate the general course of events, and a full index makes the record easily available for the investigator. The editor, John Pendleton Kennedy, State Librarian, has performed his task with judgment, and the result is highly creditable to the State. The original publications are very rare. Mr. Kennedy tells us in his preface that there are copies of the Journal of 1773 in the Library of Congress and in that of the Massachusetts Historical Society; of the Journal of 1774, an imperfect copy is in the Library of Congress; "the Journal of 1775 was never printed in full," and of the epitome in pamphlet form copies are in the *British Museum and in the Library of Congress*. No session of the House of Burgesses was held in 1776, though two attempts were made to obtain a quorum. Hence the five hundred copies of the volume now printed make these Journals for the first time accessible to the general public. The minutes of the Committee of Correspondence, with the letters received by this Committee, follow directly the Journals for the years 1773, 1774, and 1775, respectively; but they are not entirely complete. These minutes and letters have been printed in the Calendar of Virginia State Papers, volume viii. (Richmond), 1890, under the authority and direction of the then Secretary of the Commonwealth and State Librarian, and it contains letters from Alexandria, Dumfries, Williamsburg, Fredericksburg, and Baltimore not found in the volume of Journals.

—Mr. Kennedy quotes in his preface the noteworthy resolutions of the House of Burgesses of March 12, 1773, offered in Committee of the Whole by Dabney Carr (as Jefferson informs us), and reported to the House by Richard Bland, chairman of the Committee of the Whole, appointing the first Committee of Correspondence and Inquiry appointed by any colony for "correspondence and communication with our sister colonies." Mr. Kennedy reproduces, also, from a broadside in the Library of Congress, the important association entered into by eighty-nine members of the House of Burgesses and others against the use of tea and other East India commodities, except "saltpetre and spices," on May 27, 1774, and suggesting a general congress; this document will also be found in both Wirt's and Henry's 'Life of Patrick Henry.' He omits, however, from the preface and from the minutes of the Committee of Correspondence the important action taken by "25 of the late Representatives legally assembled by the moderator" on Monday, May 30, 1774, after the dissolution of the House by Lord Dunmore. This is given in the Calendar of Virginia State Papers, volume viii. (pp. 52, 53), and is referred to in the letters written next day to the Committees of Correspondence of North Carolina and of Maryland. Besides other action, this meeting called "the late Representatives" to meet on August 1, which convention (that is, the House of Burgesses under another name) appointed delegates to the first Continental Congress, and adopted both non-importation and non-exportation agreements after a time specified. The Journals of the House of Burgesses end with the meeting of June 24, 1775. Their virtual continuation is found in the Journals of the Virginia Conventions of July and December, 1775, and May, 1776. The volume is beautifully printed by the Colonial Press of Richmond, and with it is supplied an enlarged print of the coat-of-arms of the Colony, with the ancient motto "En dat Virginia quartam," and beneath a view of the Virginia Council Chamber. A photolithographic facsimile of the last three entries precedes the title-page.

—The essential character of war is vividly brought out in Richard Barry's 'Port Arthur: A Monster Heroism' (Moffat, Yard & Co.), the sum of his observation as a correspondent during a considerable part of the siege. The wonderful, almost suicidal, feats of courage, inspired by patriotic duty, which transform a people whose daily life, even in camp, is one of gentleness and serenity, divides his attention with the physical suffering that springs from the state of war. The very *latest and most effective* appliances for destroying life were in deadly operation for months on that tongue of land, and thousands upon thousands were killed and wounded. "Wounded" loses its significance where the meaning of war is not comprehended by personal observation. Frequently, as before Port Arthur, to be wounded implies far more than temporary incapacity or, indeed, the loss of a limb. For many, happily not for the majority, but still for hundreds, it meant to lie on the field between hostile fires, with no possibility of relief, until slow destruction under a torrid sun or in bitter cold ended life. The Russian slopes were strewn with forms riddled with bullets and mangled by shell, many impossible alike of rescue in life or burial in death, and along parts of the lines the living were in the closest proximity to the putrefying corpses. The killed were happier than such wounded. The Japanese army, to which Mr. Barry was accredited, won from him the highest and most sympathetic regard. The sentinel who had rebuffed him under a misapprehension, would *not be pacified until he had accepted* tea and a cigarette in token of forgiveness. Gen. Kodoma, the Chief of the General Staff, granted him a happy interview. Gen. Nogi, commanding before Port Arthur, extended frequent courtesies. Mr. Barry seems to have received what he fully reciprocated, hearty good will. An army without a guard-house, officers and men alike without profanity, regiments equally zealous, whether drawing by hand the most enormous ordnance taken into the field, "playing at children's games to the chamber music of women, as gentle as girls," or transformed into demigods of war, are his constant admiration. "You should see them fight!" is one of his exclamations when description fails. He seems to have fully appreciated the decision of the General Staff, that correspondents may have privileges but have no rights, and, acting on that doctrine, he took full advantage of the situation. Not strictly a well-written book, this is nevertheless full of the vitality of the field, and the impression that it gives of a record made on the spot is heightened by the numerous illustrations from the author's own camera.

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—The series of "Temple Biographies" (Dutton) has for its latest volume 'Thomas Harrison, Regicide and Major-General,' by Mr. C. O. Simpkinson of Balliol College. During the past three or four years considerable interest has been shown by English historians in the Fifth Monarchy men, and particularly in their uncompromising leader. Mr. Dugald Macfayden, the general editor of this series, goes farther than any other modern when he says of Harrison's followers: "It is due to them to recognize that they held, with zeal which shames our listlessness, an ideal which for purity and splendor is, when compared with those for which our generation gives its strength, as a Matterhorn among mole-hills." Such language, we submit, is not near enough the truth even to be passable rhetoric; but, all extravagance of preface-writing aside, it is well for an age which willingly admits the strength of Cromwell's character, to understand the nature of his relations with colleagues like Rainsbrough, Harrison, and Powell. Long before Robespierre sought to bring in the reign of reason and universal benevolence by the guillotine, the Fifth Monarchy men had demanded the execution of Charles I., because his life stood between them and the attainment of their desire to establish God's kingdom on earth. One interesting feature in the programme of these extreme Radicals is that they would have disfranchised the ordinary Christian altogether, choosing their parliament from the ranks of the godly, and thus placing ultimate power in the hands of those who had been "gathered" into a select pale. The distinction between Church and World, always in the forefront of Christian thought, has never been drawn more tightly than it was in England between 1647 and 1655. That Cromwell suffered himself to be driven towards regicide by the left wing of the Independents is hardly less certain than that, on becoming convinced of their wrongheadedness, he used his might to break down their organization. In Harrison himself is found a singular combination of traits. He certainly impressed many of the hard-headed among his contemporaries as being a man of piety and real enthusiasm for the lofty ideals which he professed. Yet he had a craving for pomp and display, laid his hands on money with the promptness of a ward politician, and was not particularly scrupulous as a party manager. His credentials to fame and influence were activity, great personal courage, and the possession of a clearly outlined policy. No one else was so active in bringing Charles I. to the block, and, as the chief regicide, he was honored by the special hatred of the Royalists. It does not require a literary education, which Harrison lacked, to save a man of shrewd sense from running into a vagary like that of the Fifth Monarchy programme, and the leaders of this sect seem to us disqualified by their lack of mental balance from holding a high place among the irreconcilables of history. But their presence in the England of the Great Rebellion furnishes a useful standard by which to measure the development of radical thought under revolutionary influences, and the personal virtue of firmness saves from contempt the most impossible of their projects. Mr. Simpkinson's 'Life of Harrison' is scholarly and sympathetic, without being marred by the parade of extenuation.

—M. N. E. Dionne's 'Champlain' in the "Makers of Canada" series (Toronto: Morang) is a highly eulogistic life of the great explorer and colonizer. French Canada honors the founder of Quebec as it honors no one else among the laymen of the seventeenth century, and this reverence, at once natural and creditable, gives its chief color to the present memoir. Among all the pioneers, none is more respectable than Champlain. He was not only religious, but moral, and the Hurons, long after his death, looked back to his personal habits as constituting a standard of rectitude and decency. For M. Dionne, Champlain is also a champion of the faith, the convinced ally of Jesuit missionaries, and one who had determined that the French part of the New World should be untainted by heresy. In his striking panegyric of the art of navigation, Champlain himself said: "This is the art which won my love in my early years, and induced me to expose myself almost all of my life to the impetuous waves of the ocean, and led me to explore the coasts of a portion of America, especially those of New France, where I have always desired to see the lily flourish, together with the only religion, Catholic, Apostolic, and Roman." This passage, emphasized by the erection of Notre Dame de la Recouvrance, will suffice to explain why French Canada looks upon Champlain as far more than a mere navigator and writer of voyages. For material, M. Dionne has gone chiefly to Champlain's own writings and to the reports of the missionaries. Designed as a contribution to a popular series, we do not meet in this book with any long discussion of disputed or technical points; but M. Dionne takes time to consider large issues such as the expediency of Champlain's attack upon the Iroquois, and is not prevented from breaking a lance at intervals with Faillon. For us the most interesting portion of the narrative is concerned with the taking of Quebec by the English in 1629. M. Dionne, who is a special authority on matters relating to the local annals of Quebec, furnishes some pointed details concerning the situation which existed when the town surrendered. "The population of the whole colony in July, 1629, was divided as follows: inhabitants, 23; interpreters, 11; clerks, 14; missionaries, 10; domestics, 7; French, arrived from the Huron country, 20. . . . Since the year 1608 there had been only seven births, three marriages, and forty deaths. One man had been hanged, six had been murdered, and three drowned." Into the subject of Champlain's voyages we are unable to enter, nor can we recapitulate his services to the New World; but these and all cognate topics are dealt with by M. Dionne with both sympathy and information.

—Another aid to teachers and students of English constitutional history is furnished by the 'Select Statutes, Cases and Documents' which Mr. C. Grant Robertson has recently brought together (Putnams). This sort of compilation was begun many years ago by Stubbs in his 'Select Charters,' and has been carried forward past the mediæval period by Professor Prothero and the late S. R. Gardiner. Mr. Robertson's volume, which has grown out of his own lectures on Constitutional History at Oxford, begins at the Restoration and comes down to the first Reform Bill. Among existing works, the one with which it comes into closest comparison is the 'Select Documents' edited by Prof. G. B. Adams and H. M. Stephens. The concluding portion of the latter work covers the same ground which is covered by the first part of Mr. Robertson's book, where documents like the Act of Uniformity, the Test Act, the Act of Union with Scotland, and other measures of similar importance are printed. There is less abridgment in the present work than in Adams and Stephens, while a totally new feature comes in with the section devoted to cases like the Trial of the Seven Bishops, the impeachment of Sacheverell, the case of Sir Francis Burdett, and Stockdale *v.* Hansard. Altogether, thirty-two of these cases, beginning with Skinner *v.* the East India Company (1666) and closing with Bradlaugh *v.* Gossett (1884), are given. Besides the documents which are printed at full length, others relating to the period since 1832 are included under the form of an abstract—for example, the Municipal Corporations' Act of 1835, the County Councils' Act of 1836, and the Parish Councils' Act of 1894. Mr. Robertson adds very few notes of his own, and such as he supplies are brief; but as the book will chiefly be used by teachers in close conjuncture with their own lectures, the paucity of comment does not call for adverse criticism. The most novel feature in a collection of this kind is the introduction of legal cases. "No apology, I take it," says Mr. Robertson, "to-day is necessary for allotting in a volume of this kind . . . a considerable place to cases in constitutional law. The part played by the law courts in defining, extending, limiting, even creating constitutional law, machinery, and rights, is explained and justified in the leading authorities, and the argument need not be repeated. Certainly a student who had studied the period in question and was ignorant of the leading cases would have a very partial, unsatisfactory, and misleading knowledge of his subject, both as regards historical and philosophical principles and historical matters of fact." With this view we heartily agree, and are glad to see reports of the leading constitutional cases included in this useful repertory of documents.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF TROPICAL DEPENDENCIES.

The Far-Eastern Tropics: Studies in the Administration of Tropical Dependencies. By Alleyne Ireland, F. R. G. S. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

The interest of the American people in the Philippine Islands has much declined since 1898, when patriots of the spread-eagle type were rejoicing that the United States was at last about to emulate the European monarchies in becoming a Power colonizing and ruling beyond her own limits, and when not a few philanthropists and clergymen were assuring us that the right way to deal with domestic difficulties—the right way, for instance, to reform corrupt city governments—was to assume new national responsibilities which would so stir the spirit of the nation as to bring about an improvement in

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every sphere of public activity. But though this interest has declined, though these happy results have not yet revealed themselves, though the ordinary citizen thinks little about his tropical subjects on the far side of the Pacific Ocean, still the fact remains that the United States is responsible for the Philippines, and sees no present prospect of escaping from that responsibility. It becomes, therefore, a matter of practical urgency to know how to deal with the islands; and all the light which competent observers can throw upon the problem ought to be gladly welcomed. It ought to be welcomed all the more when it comes from a writer who stands outside United States politics, and cannot be suspected of manipulating facts or suggesting arguments in favor of or against what is called an Expansionist policy.

The book before us makes a contribution to the solution of this problem which has the merit of being unconnected with party politics, and which has the further advantage of being concise,—so concise that readers who would be repelled by a fuller and more elaborate treatment may find time to peruse it. Mr. Alleyne Ireland tells us in his preface that he is "a British subject, who was in 1901 appointed Colonial Commissioner of the University of Chicago for the purpose of visiting the Far East and preparing a comprehensive report on colonial administration in South Eastern Asia." This report is to be a very large affair. It is now being prepared, and will be published in America during the next four years. Meantime Mr. Ireland gives us, in this volume of 426 pages, a sort of preliminary survey of the field which his large treatise is to cover. It is written in a broad and popular way, being a reprint of a series of articles which appeared in the London *Times* and of another series which appeared in the (New York) *Outlook;* and is a group of brief "studies of various phases of British, American, French, and Dutch colonial administration and policy." Beginning with Hongkong, British North Borneo, Sarawak, Burma, the Federated Malay States, and the Straits Settlements, all of which are British, he proceeds to French Indo-China and Dutch Java, winding up with four chapters on the Philippine Islands. Statistics, bibliography, and tables from the recent Philippine Census find a place in the three appendices.

Mr. Ireland is an effective writer, clear, vigorous, and direct, putting his points in a broad way; and though he has the summary manner of the journalist, with some carelessness and laxity in the use of words, he is free from most of the faults one is apt to find in a journalistic treatment of large and difficult subjects. He belongs to the school which some would call anti-sentimental, or even anti-humanitarian, but which he would no doubt describe as being the school which sees facts as they are, and considers that native races must be improved and native territories developed in the interests of the world at large, with slight regard to the wishes of the natives themselves. This point of view, however, which is often presented with brutal frankness by those who desire to hurry on the process of exploiting tropical territories, is not offensively obtruded in these pages, which may be read with pleasure as well as with interest by those who desire to find in small compass an outline of the experiments tried by four different nations (in what is almost the same kind of work) in the various regions we have already mentioned.

It is impossible to summarize here the descriptions given of the various methods of administration that have been adopted in these regions, or even to show how the three problems most constantly recurring have been dealt with. These problems are that of securing a revenue sufficient to pay for the internal development of the country by public works; that of using natives for administrative purposes under the control and supervision of Europeans; and that of finding a due supply of labor for agricultural and mining operations. That Mr. Ireland judges the English to have been most frequently successful in handling these and other matters, need not be attributed to any partiality for his own countrymen. The English have had far more experience in colonial administration than any other people. They have had Indian dominions for a century and a half, West Indian dominions for an even longer period, and East Asiatic dominions for a century. It is true that the Dutch acquired territories in Java before the English possessed any tropical territories, but the sphere of Dutch action has been far less wide. Spain had a longer experience and a more extended one than either of these Teutonic nations; but as Spain was almost uniformly unsuccessful either in raising her subjects or in acquiring their loyalty, or in making the most of her dominions for economic purposes, and as her colonial career has now been closed, there is little except warning to be drawn from the record of her conquests and her failures. France has, according to Mr. Ireland, turned over a new leaf in Indo-China, and is now governing her possessions there is so efficient a way that they are rapidly gaining prosperity and have become self-supporting. This, however, is an affair of the last few years. The examples which it is really instructive for America to study are those afforded by England and by Holland. Of these, those best worth studying because they present most resemblance to the conditions existing in the Philippine Islands, are the Federated Malay States, British North Borneo, the principality of Sarawak, and Java.

British North Borneo is a territory with a population of about 175,000 persons, nearly all uncivilized natives, though there are a few Europeans and more than 12,000 Chinese scattered over 31,000 square miles. It is worked under a charter by a British trading company under British protection, with a power reserved to the British Government to require the abandonment of any part of the proceedings or system of the company which they disapprove, and with a prohibition of any trading monopoly. Otherwise the company is autocratic. There is a governor, appointed with the approval of the British Government, who rules the country through officials, the higher among whom are of course Europeans. Native chiefs are permitted to remain and to deal with their subjects, under the supervision of the officials. The country seems to be peaceful, and the people contented, for their customs have not been disturbed and they are secured against gross injustice and oppression. But the company has, in Mr. Ireland's opinion, not done enough to develop the resources of the country. It does not trade, but tries to pay a dividend to its shareholders out of taxation, and revenue will not be elastic until much more has been done to open up communications and to bring in industrious immigrants from China or Japan. His view is that the company had better have itself entered upon commercial enterprises, and that it has failed to make the most of the country because it has been constantly hoping to sell out to the British Government, as the Niger Company did some years ago, upon terms advantageous to the shareholders.

The Federated Malay States consist of some native principalities on the Malay peninsula, behind the (British) Straits Settlements. They are a British protectorate, but one far more directly controlled by the home Government than is North Borneo. The British Government, which possessed colonies hard by in the Straits Settlements, was led by the disorders and misrule which existed in these independent Malay States, and especially by the need for repressing piracy, to extend its influence over them by placing residents at the courts of the native Rajahs. This process began in 1874, and now these States, with an area of 26,300 square miles and a population of 800,000, are practically ruled by the British residents, under the direction of a resident-general.

"Each State is governed by a State Council composed of the Sultan, the British resident [who is virtually master of the situation], the secretary to the resident, a number of Malay chiefs, and one or more prominent Chinamen to represent the interests of the Chinese community. As the members of the Council hold their seats by appointment and not by election, and as no law is submitted to the Council for enactment until it has been approved by the Governor of the Straits Settlements and the Colonial Secretary in England, there is here no greater independence of legislation than is enjoyed in a British Crown colony" (p. 118).

Mr. Ireland goes on to speak in warm terms of the excellence of the small British staff which practically administers these principalities, while interfering hardly at all with the social customs or the religion of the people, or the position of the native nobility, and he adds:

"British rule has given the native in the Malay States security for life and property; it has abolished slavery and the exaction of unpaid labor; it has provided free education and free hospital treatment and medicine for all; it has established permanent land titles; it has exterminated piracy; it has put an end to the recurrent scourges of smallpox and cholera; it has constructed over a thousand miles of metalled road; it has built *out of current revenue* three hundred thousand miles of railway, which carried nearly four million passengers in 1902, and earned in ten years a revenue of over $7,000,000; it has (perhaps unwisely) left the native practically untaxed (raising revenue mainly from an export duty on the tin extracted by Chinese miners and from opium, spirit and gambling licenses paid by Chinese); it has raised the revenue of the States from $400,000 in 1875, to $22,500,000 in 1902; it has in the same time increased the foreign trade of the States from $1,500,000 to $127,000,000; it has kept the peace, and maintained the law" (p. 120).

Our author becomes even more dithyrambic in his praise of the administration of Sarawak, that remarkable principality in Borneo which was founded by the late Sir James Brooke, a young Englishman, who, after some military experience as an officer in the East India Company's service, had

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gone out to Borneo with the hope of doing something for the people. He was led on till he became Rajah, and ruled for twenty-six years the dominion now ruled by his nephew. It is a benevolent autocracy, with which the British Government in no way interferes, though, of course, claiming the right to control foreign policy in return for the protection which it guarantees against foreign aggression. The account given of the paternal administration of this region of 50,000 square miles and about 500,000 people is extremely interesting. It is conducted by a few Europeans; the native chiefs are consulted and guided rather than driven; the relations between natives and Europeans are friendly; and the country is prosperous and peaceful.

Mr. Ireland comes last to the Philippines, and has severe strictures to pass on the policy followed by American administrations there. He comments on the folly shown in encouraging Aguinaldo, treating him as an ally and asking favors of him before it had been determined whether to retain the Islands. He is surprised that no attempt should have been made in the earlier years of occupation to ascertain what expedients other nations had employed in their tropical possessions, and to profit by the experience those nations had acquired. He criticises the examination for admission to the Philippine civil service, pointing out how low a standard of attainments it fixes compared with the examination for the British Indian [and Colonial] civil services. He condemns the mode of governing the Islands by a commission, holding that in countries in a backward political condition it is far better to put one man at the head, to whom the natives, accustomed for many centuries to no kind of government except a despotism, may look as their ruler; and he contrasts the results of having a commission at Manila with the results achieved by the one-man government of Gen. Leonard Wood in Cuba. He argues strongly against the control exercised by Congress over legislation for the Islands, and complains in particular of the limitations by act of Congress of the area of public land which may be sold to a corporation to 2,500 acres, and of the refusal of Congress to reduce the Dingley tariff rates upon articles exported from the Islands to the United States.

"Shorn of any real authority to determine independently the measures best suited to the needs of the Islands, compelled to legislate with one eye on the American public and the other on Congress, driven to adopt an apologetic tone in regard to all measures which are likely to arouse public sentiment in the United States, the Philippine Commission can neither command the respect of the people nor carry on its own work according to the plain needs of the situation. It has been stated frequently that, as a matter of fact, Congress has sanctioned every Act submitted to it by the Philippine Commission. This is perfectly true, but it is not due to Congress adjusting its mind to Philippine legislation, but to the Philippine Commission adjusting its legislation to the mind of Congress" (p. 211).

Mr. Ireland advocates the introduction of Chinese labor into the Islands, rating low the industrial capacity of the native Filipino; and he thinks that the American Government has begun at the wrong end in taking so much pains about education and spending so much money upon it. In his view it is far more important to stimulate economic development both by bringing in efficient labor and by constructing roads and other public works. The capital mistake, in his judgment, has been to apply to the Philippines ideas of policy conceived to be sound for America herself.

"A high tariff, an extended system of education, the exercise of political rights by the greatest possible number of the people, the exclusion of contract labor, and the application of the American navigation laws, all of which appear to have the approval of the American people as component parts of their home policy, have been transferred wholesale to a country which is separated from the country of the ruling power by every circumstance of climate, race, and civilization. The task which has been undertaken is, in fact, to make an American out of a Filipino" (p. 252).

It need hardly be said that our author does not expect success in this task. That there is some truth in his criticisms and his prognostications of the failure of a policy which thinks that instruction is sure to make semi-civilized people, long accustomed to indolence, become industrious, and to fit them for self-governing institutions—this may be admitted. The English have found that the natives of India are making a very slow progress, if any progress at all, towards that capacity for working a representative municipal system which they have tried to introduce. Nevertheless, here and elsewhere, Mr. Ireland strikes us as being rather too sweeping in his views, and rather too confidently positive in his expression of them. Still, his chapters on American administration in the Philippines, and the lessons he draws from what has been done by the English in some of their colonies (not in all colonies, for the English too have their failures) and recently by the Dutch in Java, for the Dutch have reformed the faults of their former administration—these things are well worth the study of all who desire to see the responsibilities undertaken so hastily and lightheartedly in 1898 discharged in a spirit and by methods creditable to the American people.

FIVE NOVELS.

Love's Cross-Currents. By Algernon Charles Swinburne. Harper & Bros. 1905.

The Breath of the Gods. By Sidney McCall. Little, Brown & Co.

Mrs. Darrell. By Foxcroft Davis. Macmillan.

The Lunatic at Large. By T. Storer Clouston. F. M. Buckles & Co.

A New Humanity; or, The Easter Island. By Adolf Wilbrandt. Translated from the German by Dr. A. S. Rappoport. London: Maclaren & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

There are few nowadays who do not need to be reminded that Mr. Swinburne once tried his 'prentice hand on fiction. Some forty years since, the attempt counted as a youthful indiscretion, since it is always indiscreet to write outside one's *genre* until it is certain what one's *genre* precisely is. But now it is forty years on, and Mr. Swinburne's tradition is fixed as firm as Sappho's or Tennyson's, and could not be confused though Mr. Watts-Dunton were to persuade his friend to resurrect half a dozen sketchy novels. Genealogy apart, the story of 'Love's Cross-Currents' is commonplace enough. Mr. Swinburne describes a situation rather than a progression of affairs, and the single incident of the book, a death by drowning, brings about no reversal and no dénouement. The epistolary novel is always a strain on the attention; and elaborate as Mr. Swinburne has made these letters, the most careful reader is left with a feeling of mystification. If an explanatory prologue is held to be a weakness when it is made an essential part of a drama, what is to be thought of a novel whose introductory chapter is a key without which the reader could not hope to follow the drift of the story? Mr. Swinburne had better have written out the whole in the style of his "Prologue," and avoided this "compromise between a story and a play."

It is a most uncomfortable family to which he introduces his readers. Five cousins are first complicated by the caprices of their parents. Following the parental example, the two girls of the family marry in haste, and soon discover a marked preference for the cousin to whom they are not united. But the Cheynes and the Harewoods, with their fluctuations of sentiment, are but the puppets of the protagonist Lady Midhurst, who is aunt or grandmother of the group. The pastime of her old age is to embroil her kinsfolk, and her favorite exercise to appear as the god from the machine and avert any unconventional consequences. Her letters to the young people are a series of cynical platitudes, seasoned by advice and suggestions that might bring a blush to the cheek of Chesterfield. As a love story, the book is entirely ineffective. What interest there is lies in the motives and machinations of this elderly relative, and the reader must be gifted with unusually acute sympathies if he is to keep up with the caprices of the younger correspondents. No young people ever wrote such elaborate letters, no aunt ever made mischief with so little to gain by her intriguing, and the intrigues of a clever old lady can seldom have had such barren results. The style is not peculiarly Swinburean, but it is naturally more vigorous, more telling than is common with writers of modern fiction. There are half a dozen stanzas of poetry in Mr. Swinburne's weaker manner.

A comprehensive review of 'The Breath of the Gods' would presuppose many months and years of sojourn in Japan. Are the Japanese phrases scattered throughout the book accurate? Is it a true picture of the land and its people? In short, is the local color as correct as it is startling? Confident answers to these questions are possible only to a traveller and a psychologist. Readers less well endowed will have to make, so to speak, a comparative study in local color, and argue from the known to the unknown. Thus, when we see that the American minister and his wife, daughter, and secretary are all conceivable American characters, we incline to think that the four principal Japanese personages, the despotic old *kerai* with his subservient wife and ideally beautiful and perfect daughter, and the great lord whom the daughter marries, may also be lifelike. But then the exaggeration and obvious caricature displayed in portraying the two Frenchmen, only distinguished by their differing component parts of sensuality and cunning, make us wonder whether the au-

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thor really does see true where race prejudices are involved. The motto of the whole book might be said to be "Banzai Nippon," and every Japanese virtue, beauty, or charm seems to the author vastly superior to the same quality elsewhere. This may be the case, but the arguments are not convincing; indeed, the more glowing the descriptions, the less we believe them. Small obvious inaccuracies also tend to shake our faith. The Chinese poet Toemmei may be correctly quoted, but Burns certainly is not. The flora of Japan may be as glorious and sweet-smelling as we are led to believe, but "scented goldenrod" for an American herb sounds no less anomalous than "dumb perfumed music." Interiors in Tokio may be as the author paints them, but in Washington it is scarcely usual to have a grand "coming-out party" on a "white duck floor covering." Yuki's obi-domès and adzuma-coats may be true to life, but one starts to read of a "little French dressmaker on her knees beside" the American girl on the night of her first ball, with her mouth full of pins, to complete the toilet—pins so necessary, indeed, that the débutante on hurrying down stairs calls back: "Do not attempt to sit up, madame. Yuki is to stay all night and will help me with the pins."

To quote from memory one of Andrew Lang's criticisms, we feel that so much of the local color of which we can judge is wrong that we hesitate about pinning our faith to that which is unfamiliar. When, furthermore, we see that the author revels in tall talk and wallows in sentiment, reminding us vaguely first of "Les Précieuses Ridicules" and then of Marie Corelli, we feel that we need not afflict our souls over the verisimilitude of Yuki's death. In the novel, she loves a young Frenchman, but marries an old Japanese; she then becomes an incarnation of loyalty to her husband and her country, yet incurs the suspicion of the one and risks the welfare of the other in order to shield her quondam lover in illness; she has every reason to live for her land and the patriotic work she is doing, and yet she dies without exonerating herself so that her "sacrifice" may be complete. To the Occidental mind it all seems Much Ado About Nothing. But as, putting aside the truth or improbability of the story, the book is interesting in all parts and thrilling in some, we may read it with all the greater satisfaction because we give it the benefit of the doubt.

'Mrs. Darrell' does not leave on the mind any very salient impression. The story is slight, the characters shadowy, and the style, except for a strange abundance of *non-sequiturs*, exceedingly commonplace. Though occupied, we might even say obsessed, with the "smart set" and their doings, the book is in itself entirely without distinction. We follow Mrs. Darrell from Washington to India, from India to London and back again to Washington, without mustering up much interest in her love affairs, real and imaginary. She fancies herself in love with Reginald Darrell, elsewhere called "Jack," and discovers in a short time that she really loves Hugh Pelham "with all her soul, her mind, her heart," though the author reassuringly tells us at the end that "their unfortunate attachment had been in the highest sense elevating." Her husband dies, and while her Bayard of a lover is in Africa and represented, or rather misrepresented, by a bullying Scotch solicitor, the terrified and impecunious widow all but consents to marry the villain of the piece, the typical unscrupulous and godless millionaire from the West, with his well-known mysterious fascination for women. The villain is exposed by the lover of his own daughter, who figures as secondary heroine, and Mrs. Darrell marries the virtuous Pelham. There are just two good characters in the book—the heroine's old Virginian father, and a Washington "grande dame" of advanced years, but perennial youthfulness. We have met them before in various places; still, as old friends they are doubly welcome in an otherwise dull book.

The 'Lunatic at Large' is not at all probable, and not very edifying, but it is certainly well written and entertaining. Readers will be almost sure to smile at the wit, and laugh aloud at some of the escapades of the escaped lunatic who gives the book its title. How the impecunious London doctor ever induces the head of a respectable private asylum to receive a patient without explanations of any sort, and apparently at a merely nominal fee, we are never told. But it is essential to the story that he should do so, as the doctor is thereby enabled to enjoy with a pseudo-lunatic friend the foreign trip prescribed for and doubtless defrayed by the hero. This is, however, not unmixed enjoyment either during its course or at its close, for the two conspirators return to find that the real lunatic had escaped from his asylum shortly after their departure. His escape is effected with such cleverness, and his subsequent career with the German Baron whom he partly bearleads and partly leads astray in London and at the seaside, is so full of real wit and ingenuity that we are not wholly unprepared for the climax. The simple-hearted and forgiving Baron heaps coals of fire on his head by extricating him from his last dilemma, and the hero completely vindicates his restored sanity. Probably even the most just-minded person will regret that it is the sane, slow-witted German and not the quick-witted ex-lunatic who marries the utterly impossible but distinctly attractive Lady Alicia à Fyre, especially as the dialogue between her and the hero is the best thing in this extremely readable book.

In Helmut Adler, the leading character of Wilbrandt's novel, figures the engaging Nietzsche, drawn portrait-wise as to both personality and teachings. Modern European fiction, as the translator observes, abounds in the gospel of Nietzsche. A score of authors; in a score of novels, are busy with the themes of the ape-man, the over-man, the god-man. We were worms, we are apes; the over-man among us is to arise and evolve a race of god-men. Helmut Adler, in a night of agony at his wife's coffin, brings forth ideas which are to redeem humanity. To an island he will repair with a few chosen ones, and found a race of true men, noble, but, above all, strong. No advocate he for "equality-mongers." "Our idea will have nothing to do with the mass. . . . It aims . . . at a selection." Equality means simply an encouragement to the weak to live—the perpetuation of the ape: "sentimental pity with the eternal worthless." One of the fiercest of Helmut's quarrels, indeed, is with the nephew who proclaims his uncle a Socialist. Equally to be crushed is the doctrine of self-obliteration. Helmut's other chiefest clash is with the vegetarian hermit, who is "always talking his slave-morality, his feminine virtues—renunciation, abstinence, meekness, disgust of life: all this is good for slaves and cripples, but not for man." "My idea," Adler cries, "is not the 'release,' the liberation of the masses, but their enchaining through the might of the Spirit, through the power of the Elect! Dominion of the great ones, of the noble over the ape-men." "Our great misfortune, Christianity!" he exclaims. "It is changing the world into a vast hospital." Disgust for the ape-man, and aspiration, are the requirements for those who are to work with him, the self-constituted Phœnix who shall rejuvenate humanity.

Disciples are not lacking to Adler. When his published works shall have procured the funds, the island is to be bought, and then—"perhaps after thousands of years—the half-man will become a complete man." Opium and madness, however, overwhelm Adler; the apostle of strength succumbs to the least distinguished of weaknesses; and over this wreck sounds out a song from the heart of Schweitzer, his friend, doctor, and disciple—the song of the Easter Island as it now comes to him, clear and ordered:

"Much renunciation and a little hope; nothing more. That each person should begin with himself; each one, of course, being a whole crowd in himself; a crowd of inherited traits, qualities, impulses, weaknesses. Well, that each one should found amid this crowd of characteristics an *aristocracy*—that is not the word exactly; that he should pick out from this crowd a selection; copying, of course, the noblest examples, of the most enduring, of the best, of the most humane; and that he should guard this 'inner island' from the world, cultivating it and tending it with deepest affection; and so developing all its qualities to the full; not by pursuing a life that is half-life, shut out from the world, . . . but living a life full of activity, of eagerness, of love for the very living; . . . then one must seek the other; these 'Easter Islands' must find out each other, they must grow larger and larger—in the midst of the world itself. . . . Perhaps in ten thousand years there will develop from this concentration of the best a better humanity!"

Thus are embodied in the different characters varying philosophies. Westenberger is the recluse, returning to nature; Adler the preacher of the New Humanity, with his mad, bad, not all ignoble ideal of a world of strength and achievement, where should be no room for the weak or the pacific—or even for the good, the nice, the well-behaved. Bergmann, the flighty musician, may well stand for the world-spirit, gayly dispelling the shades when they threaten too seriously, yet himself shaken into manhood at the last. Emil is the spirit, let us say, of the nether-world, in whom the truth has no part—the moral shadow; Malwine, the woman element, patronized by her father, Adler, as nice, neat, and young-lady-like, but "ego-less," with "nothing for the Easter Island"—in reality the moral buttress of the family.

If the book is doctrinal and the doctrines heavy, it is not therefore a heavy book. On the contrary, there is so much sincerity in each point of view, combined with so much lightness of pen, that it is even absorbing reading; the way is tortuous, indeed, but not slimy.

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FISKE'S CHESS IN ICELAND.

Chess in Iceland and in Icelandic Literature. With Historical Notes on Other Table Games. By Willard Fiske. Florence, 1905. 4to, pp. x., 400.

The late Professor Fiske was a man of many interests, not the least fruitful of which has been his devotion to the game of chess. In his early life he had taken an important part as player, organizer, and author in the development of American chess, and in his latest years he devoted much of his time to the advancement of chess in Iceland. From this latter activity arose his interest in the history of chess and other games (readers of the *Nation* will remember an able series of letters on "the origin of chess," which he contributed to this paper in the summer of 1900), of which the present book is the ultimate result. It is cause for sincere regret that Professor Fiske died as the last sheets were passing through the press, but fortunately so little remained to be done that Prof. Horatio S. White and Messrs. George W. Harris of Cornell and Halldór Hermannsson of Reykjavík have been able to complete the volume in the form its author intended it to take.

In attempting to give an account of the contents of the work, the reviewer is placed at some disadvantage by its unconventional arrangement. For this, Professor Fiske apologizes in his preface; it has resulted partly from changes of plan and the pursuit of new researches that suggested themselves as the book grew, and partly from the eccentric method of composition by which each sheet of print was sent to press as soon as sufficient copy was completed. The former precludes all considerations of proportion, the latter leads to numerous repetitions and modifications of opinion in the light of new information. Originally Professor Fiske merely intended to reprint two old magazine articles of his own upon Icelandic chess in history and literature. These, however, proved on examination inadequate in the light of modern knowledge, and they were accordingly amplified by the addition of further notes and references. While making these hasty additions, Professor Fiske came across references in dictionary and saga to the long-obsolete Icelandic game of *hnefatafl* or *hnottafl*, and turned aside to endeavor to solve the question of what it was, or at least to clear the ground by showing what it was not. Since lexicographers had identified it in turn with nearly every European boardgame, his investigations took the form of an inquiry into the nature and history of each of these games, and he began to collect and describe the literature of the subject so far as it was accessible to him. So absorbing and fruitful did this investigation become that the original plan receded into the background, and he saw that if he were to complete the treatment of Icelandic chess and the elucidation of the nature of *hnefatafl*, a second volume would be necessary. This he has not lived to write, but it is possible that such material as he had already collected may eventually appear in the Cornell publications relating to Iceland for which Professor Fiske has left provision.

Iceland obtained its knowledge of chess from England towards the end of the twelfth century. Professor Fiske has no difficulty in establishing a close intercourse between the two countries at the time, and gives a list of noted Icelanders who had studied in England in the latter part of the century. Any of these may have been the first to introduce the game into Iceland, where the game soon took a prominent place in popular favor. Transcribers and editors of the older literature added definiteness to the vague references to table games by substituting *skáktafl* for the colorless *tafl* or already forgotten *hnefatafl*, and players soon elaborated an extensive terminology. At a later time the isolation of Iceland led to curious modifications in the rules of the game, which Professor Fiske explains at length. It is only in the course of the last century that Icelandic players have begun to adopt the ordinary European method of play.

Since *hnefatafl* has been variously rendered draughts, merrels, fox and geese, and tables, Professor Fiske next proceeds to investigate these games in turn. Before any identification could be accepted, it was necessary to show not only a resemblance in the method of play, but also the possibility of the game having reached Iceland sufficiently long ago to satisfy the evidence of the early sagas. Professor Fiske had no difficulty in showing that none of these games satisfy the conditions. The slight information we possess as to the nature of *hnefatafl* shows it to be a game in which one player with a number of pieces attacked his opponent's *hnefa*, while the opponent possessed in addition to the *hnefa* a number of pieces by which he endeavored to frustrate the attack. The only game that we know which appears to answer to this description is the Welsh *tawlbwrdd* (often translated throw-board, but in the first element of which Professor Fiske rightly sees the Latin *tabula*); from a passage in the 'Ancient Laws of Wales' ([1841] p. 436) it appears to have been at least a similar game.

The earliest authority for European boardgames is the magnificent MS. 'Libro del Acedrex' of Alfonso X. of Castile, written about 1283, and now preserved in the Escurial, near Madrid. This work not only treats of chess and various methods of using the dice, but adds a long section on the game of *tables*, and on other games, of which the most interesting is a group bearing the generic name of *alquerque* (=the Arabic *al-qirq*). Professor Fiske obtained access to a copy of this MS. too late to make full use of it, and his sections on draughts, merrels, and fox-and-geese need some revision in consequence.

In draughts (checkers) he sees merely "a greatly simplified chess, apparently devised in Spain during or before the thirteenth century." While this date and the country of origin are probably correctly stated, the arguments by which it is sought to establish the chess-ancestry of draughts are unconvincing, and unsupported by any available evidence. It is one of the difficulties in tracing the pedigrees of European board games that they received in mediæval Latin new designations upon the model of the classical *ludus latrunculorum*. Thus the Arabic *shatrang* (except in Castilian and Portuguese) became *ludus scaccorum* (*scaccus*=a chessman), the Arabic *qirq* became *ludus merellorum* (*merellus* = a coin or counter), the Arabic *nard* became *ludus tabularum* (*tabula*=the backgammon man). *Ludus dominarum* is a similar name, in which *domina* will mean the draughtsman, a use almost certainly derived from the chess term *domina*, used at first for a second queen obtained by the promotion of a pawn, and ultimately for any queen. There is considerable evidence to show that draughts is a development of an old form of merrels or *alquerque*. In Catalan it was formerly called *marro de punto* (*marro* is still Catalan for merrels, and *punto* is the name of a square of the chessboard); in Sicilian it was formerly *marrella*, while one of the varieties of *alquerque* in the Alfonso MS. shows the same method of capture, and the rule of "huffing" an opponent's man when it has omitted to make a possible capture.

So, also, fox-and-geese, admirably as it is treated here, has a closer connection with merrels than Professor Fiske suspected. It appears in the Alfonso MS. among the *alquerque* games as *de cercar la liebre* ("catch the hare"). In England, in the household accounts of Edward IV. (1461-1483) we find one for the provision of "two foxis and 46 hounds of silver overgilt" for two sets of "marelles." Fox-and-geese, in some varieties, appears to agree in part with the description of *hnefatafl*, but Professor Fiske is able to show that this game, now called in Icelandic *refskák*, is of later introduction into the island than chess.

To judge from many passages in the literature of the Middle Ages, the three most popular indoor pastimes of that period were chess, merrels, and tables. There still exist a large number of MSS. of the XIVth and XVth centuries in Latin, French and Italian, which contain collections of problems in these three games. Professor Fiske gives extracts from some of these, but at the same time repeatedly expresses his regret that he had not been able to make fuller use of them. His work, however, loses less by the omission than he imagined, and, after a careful study of these MSS., we have discovered no new information of material importance.

Of these games, merrels, or morris, is a very old and widely spread game. Professor Fiske quotes from an early Arabic work a passage establishing its existence in Medina as early as the VIIIth century. As Arabic scholars agree that *qirq* is not an Arabic word, its ultimate origin still remains to be discovered. Alfonso X. describes several varieties of it, and it appears to have been especially popular in the Middle Ages in France and England. From the latter country it came to America with the earliest settlers, though, apparently, the American variety that is now usual, the twelve men's morris, is unknown on the continent of Europe, and almost obsolete in England. In the latter country merrels has fallen in public esteem, and is now chiefly met with in rural districts, where it is played under a variety of local names.

The third of these games, tables, is the subject of the largest portion of Professor Fiske's book. The whole section is replete with evidence of patient and accurate scholarship. Professor Fiske has established the fact that "tables" was a generic name for any game played upon the backgammon board, and that it included a large number of varieties. He has recovered the rules of many of these varieties, and shows that the ordinary English game of backgammon is identical with one of the games described in the Alfonso MS. Spe-

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cially full is the account of the Icelandic game *kotra*—a name derived from *quater*, one of the throws of the dice; indeed, he has left but little for the future investigator to discover in the history of tables in Europe. The outstanding problems relate to the ancestry of its Arabic forerunner, *nard*, and its connection with classical games that required the use of dice. But before this can be done it will be necessary for some student to make a careful study of the mass of information relating to Roman games that has hitherto not been used.

There is only one work with which Professor Fiske's book can be compared. It is more than 200 years since Dr. Thomas Hyde of Oxford published his 'De Ludis Orientalibus,' the earliest and still the most scholarly and reliable work upon Oriental games. What Hyde did for the East, Professor Fiske has now done for the West, with at least equal skill and patience. It is fortunate that, when this long-neglected corner of the history of civilization came to be written, it should have fallen into the hands of such a man as Professor Fiske, who combined the necessary practical skill in games with the linguistic and historical knowledge that has enabled him to deal scientifically with his authorities. The history of chess is still obscured by the unhistorical spirit of its earlier historians; Professor Fiske has spared this group of board games from a like reproach.

The Interdependence of the Arts of Design: Six Lectures delivered on the Scammon Foundation at the Art Institute of Chicago in 1894. By Russell Sturgis. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1905.

Mr. Sturgis's first lecture deals with "Modern Judged by Ancient Art" as regards representation and sentiment; the second, with the same comparison as regards decorative effects; the third, with the industrial art in which form predominates, and the fourth, with those in which color predominates; while the fifth and sixth lectures are devoted, respectively, to the use of sculpture and painting in architecture.

The book, which is somewhat profusely illustrated, bears otherwise the traces of its origin, and reads rather like the slightly revised report of extempore talks than like a formal treatise; the text tending to become a sort of running commentary on the pictures, enlivened by a broad culture and a much wider knowledge of the subject than find room for expression, but rather incidental and inconclusive, containing many interesting hints and excursions, but with no course of reasoning pushed very far. It is as if the speaker had relied on his store of learning for his matter and his lantern-slides for suggestion, and had found so much to say that very little of it got itself said completely. He treats the matter of many volumes in the space of one without the rigid selection that would be necessary to make a few truths entirely clear. Something of this effect is, doubtless, due to the temperament of the lecturer as well as to the form of the lecture, for Mr. Sturgis is always inclined to see at least two sides to every proposition, and to feel that in art and criticism nothing is unqualifiedly true. Probably he would be quite content that his lectures should be found stimulative, and would disclaim the intention of being formally instructive.

Of course, Mr. Sturgis's inconclusiveness is only relative, and there are certain pretty definite conclusions to be found in these lectures, as that, for instance, modern art has gained little over the old in expression and has rather lost in decorative beauty; that it has gone farthest in the observation and record of external nature; that in the minor arts it does better with color than with form; that it can produce fine statues and paintings, but is uninventive in pure ornament, and the like. And even where he is inconclusive he is suggestive, which is perhaps better. The lectures must have been valuable to the students for whom they were primarily intended, and may be read by others with pleasure and profit.

There is one point incidentally discussed by Mr. Sturgis, which we venture to pick out for comment—hardly for criticism. In describing Oriental damascened work in metal, he alludes, in passing, "to the fortunate possession by the Arabic-speaking people, as also by the Chinese and their fellows of the Far Orient, of a system of written characters which are beautiful in themselves," and goes on to say: "It is easy to see that it is of immeasurable benefit to the decorative arts in Japan, in China, and in the Moslem East, that their written characters, which replace the letters of our alphabet, are capable of such exquisite treatment." Now that this has been said so often is, in itself, some proof that it is true, and its truth as regards the minor decorative arts is patent; but it is at least curious that great figure designers always seem to prefer the most rigidly plain lettering, and that all attempts to construct decorative variants of our Roman alphabet have been the work of ornamentalists, never of great figure painters. Even any marked irregularity of lettering seems always to have been intolerable to the great figure designers, with the single exception (of course a very significant one) of the designers of Greek coins. It would almost appear that Ruskin was right, and that the great masters of the figure valued their lettering for its ugliness as a contrast with the beauty they dealt in, were it not that they evidently took great pains with its proportion and spacing, and that certain Renaissance inscriptions are, in fact, delightful to look at in themselves and apart from their surroundings.

We believe that what the great figure designers have cared for in neat lettering is not ugliness contrasted with beauty, but one kind of beauty contrasted with another—formality, rigidity, and angularity contrasted with freedom, grace, and curvature. The Greeks designed the figure so severely that they did not need the contrast of formality in their lettering, but they did enjoy the contrast of angularity with curvature, and seem to have made the forms of their letters as angular as possible. The formality of our Roman alphabet is so valuable as a contrast to the rich curves of free figure designing, and as an escape from the over-luxuriance that would come of marrying cursive lettering to such design, that it is far finer for the purposes of a fully developed art than any Oriental alphabet. Imagine the inscriptions on the frescoes of Raphael or Michelangelo replaced by Arabic or Chinese, and ask yourself if the loss of appropriateness and the right kind of beauty would not be greater than the loss of intelligibility. Often enough the inscriptions are there, we believe, more for the delight of the artist in the effect of them than for any necessity of explanation. Imagine an Arabic inscription on a Greek coin, and ask yourself whether the undeniable beauty of the letters would not be too insistent, too distracting from the beauty of the figure sculpture, whether it would not be out of place and intolerable. The fact seems to be that the Arabic characters are so beautiful that they must be themselves the principal subject of any work of art in which they appear; and even the more rigid and formal characters of the Chinese and Japanese are ill adapted for subordination to fully matured figure design. If the Oriental ornamentalist is fortunate in his alphabet, the great European designers of the figure have been no less fortunate in theirs.

Scandinavia. By R. Nisbet Bain. Macmillan. 1905.

The First Romanovs. By R. Nisbet Bain. Dutton & Co. 1905.

The literary activity of Mr. R. Nisbet Bain is attested by the appearance in quick succession of two volumes on northeastern Europe, whose titles we cite above. The book on Scandinavia, which is a contribution to the Cambridge Historical Series, takes up the political development of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden at 1513, and follows it to 1900. At the present moment, when the eyes of the world are fastened upon the "sovereign State" of Norway, Mr. Bain's last chapter will probably be read with the greatest interest, for therein he discusses the relations of Norway and Sweden since 1814. From this date forward Norway has sought to secure full political equality with Sweden, and as the Act of Union was ambiguously worded, there has been perpetual friction over the meaning of the Constitution. The present crisis, however, may be said to date from 1880, when the radical irreconcilables gained control of the Norwegian Storthing, and made the position of conservative mediators like Frederick Stang untenable. From 1884 to 1889 the radicals under John Sverdrup had a ministry of their own; but as the responsibilities of office made Sverdrup less anxious to dissolve the Union, his party fell apart, and at last became demoralized by the split which arose in 1887 over the church organization question. With the radicals who triumphed in 1891 and 1897, Mr. Bain has little sympathy, and flatly styles Viggo Ullman "a professional agitator." His general attitude towards the Norwegian patriots or secessionists may not unfairly be deduced from the first sentence of the preface, where he says: "The political history of Scandinavia is the history of the frustration of a great Baltic Empire." In the early part of the sixteenth century, all the main tendencies seemed to be pointing towards the attainment of that unity which would have made Scandinavia a leading power, and which was frustrated by the unfortunate ferocity of Christian II. in ordering

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the "Blood-bath of Stockholm" (1520). The last vestiges of union are now being shattered by Norwegian ambition.

"The treasonable coquetting with Russia," says Mr. Bain, "of ultra-Radicals like Björnson and Ullman, who have gone so far as actually to propose the virtual cession of two ice-free ports to that power, is eloquent of Norway's suicidal tendencies. With Russia at her very door, an independent Norway would be far more dangerous to Sweden than an independent Ireland would ever be to Great Britain. Nor can it be fairly said that Sweden has not endeavored to meet half-way the views of her sister State as regards foreign representation."

This passage will serve to indicate Mr. Bain's point of view in dealing with the current political situation. For the rest, his epitome of Scandinavian annals is clear and well arranged, giving about equal prominence to Denmark and Sweden.

'The First Romanovs' is a work which covers less ground than is traversed in the Scandinavian volume, and is marked not only by a greater fulness of detail, but by greater concentration of purpose. Here Mr. Bain seems almost to support a definite thesis, for in tracing the fortunes of the Romanoffs from Michael, the founder, to Peter the Great, he gives to a single family the credit of having created Russia. His inference would be that at this moment the country is quite unfit for constitutional government, as it is understood in western Europe. Bishop Creighton, after his return from the coronation ceremonies, was at some pains to point out the absurdity of applying English standards to Russia, and Mr. Bain is even more distinct when he says:

"It is an indisputable historical fact that Russia owes everything to the Tsars—her prosperity, her greatness, her empire, her very existence. The Tsars have made many mistakes, and the mistakes of an autocracy must always be more glaringly obvious than the mistakes of any other form of government; but any impartial critic, taking a broad historical view of the one hundred and ninety-eight years [*sic*] during which the Romanovs have held sway, must admit that no other European dynasty has so conscientiously, and on the whole so successfully, done its duty."

As Michael Romanoff became Tsar in 1613, we find it difficult to account for Mr. Bain's chronology in the foregoing passage, for 292 years have, by our arithmetic, elapsed since then.

Mr. Bain's description of the anarchy which preceded Michael's accession forms a picturesque starting-point for a defence of strong government.

"Rarely," he says, "has any European country been in such desperate straits as Russia was in 1613. The Swedes occupied all her Baltic provinces, as well as Novgorod, her commercial metropolis. The Poles held all her western and most of her central provinces. Savage hordes of Tartars and Cossacks swarmed in every direction, leaving a smoking wilderness behind them. In the extreme north, thousands of native freebooters and vagabonds pillaged, burned, and slew. In the extreme southeast, Zarucki, the last of a long line of pretenders, aimed at carving out a kingdom of his own on the Volga. From every quarter of the Tsardom came tales of woe."

Three centuries later, the last sentence is almost equally true, and Nicholas II. has enough before him if he would realize Mr. Bain's conception of what, in the light of history, a Tsar should be.

It must not be inferred, however, that this book is a panegyric of absolutism, or that it minimizes the importance of men like Matyeeff, Nikon, Pososhkoff, and Vasily Golitsuin. Roughly speaking, the first half is devoted to Michael, Alexius, and Sophia, the second half to Peter the Great. Political in the main, the narrative is interspersed with interesting chapters on the social and religious life of old Muscovy, as well as with a detailed account of Peter's administrative system. Mr. Bain is one of the few Englishmen who can write on Russian and Polish subjects from a first-hand knowledge of native sources, and the present volume is in many respects the best he has given us.

Napoleon: The First Phase. Some Chapters on the Boyhood and Youth of Bonaparte: 1769-1793. By Oscar Browning. John Lane. 1905. 8vo, portraits.

Mr. Browning informs us in his dedication that this, his latest book, has been inspired by the work of Lord Rosebery, his lifelong friend; hence his title. Unfortunately the choice suggests comparison, and, if there is little to choose in the historical value of the two books, in every other respect the "Last" is immeasurably the superior of the "First" Phase. Lord Rosebery has a personal and interesting style, and, whatever his subject may be, Napoleon or Pitt, bibelots, horse-racing or passive resistance, there is generally both matter to amuse and to instruct. With Mr. Browning the case is far otherwise, and in his present book he does not even attempt to excite our interest by furnishing us with new facts on Napoleon's youth, contenting himself with summarizing briefly from other writers, and chiefly from the admirable works of Masson and Chuquet. His publisher, Mr. John Lane, does not imitate his author's proper candor in this respect, but presents the reviewer with a typewritten Literary Note in which it is stated that "This period of the Emperor's life has never before been attempted in detail." The fact is, as Mr. Browning himself is perfectly open to admit, that Chuquet, Masson, Jung, Nasica, Coston, Libri, and others have long since explored this field; what he offers being merely matter equivalent to two or three magazine articles extracted from them.

There is one feature of the present work that might in a novice be passed over, but which in an official expositor of modern history at one of the great universities of the world creates little less than amazement. Carelessness, to use no more unpleasant word, is the predominant note of the book. At nearly every page the reader with any nicety of sense as to the use of the English tongue is offended by the Gallicisms into which the use of French authorities leads the writer. Thus, to note a few instances, we have "polygon" for "range," and are told that Louis Bonaparte slept in a cabinet—a remarkable feat. And we get even beyond Gallicisms into a sort of no-man's land between French and English fit only for the creators of Volapük and other international tongues, in which we find French soldiers crying "victorie," and a committee of the French Government described as the "Councel Executif Prouisoire." Among many similar mistakes that constantly irritate the reader, a few more may be noted. Thus, we are told that the Corsicans vowed the Bonaparte family to "eternal execution"; we are confronted with the word "cameraderie," more suggestive of photography than friendship; we find such a well-known name as that of Bourrienne nearly invariably misspelt, and we are introduced to such strange and incorrect forms as the Countess *of* Potocka. This feature of the book is the more noteworthy because a somewhat similar quality is apparent in Mr. Browning's judgments. His description of Saliceti as "cold and petulant" may conceivably be only a vague effort at epigram, but his statement that Pozzo di Borgo "eventually succeeded in crushing Napoleon" can only be described as nonsense. Pozzo had influence, and it was wielded against the Emperor, but to ascribe decisive importance to it is what no recognized authority has done or is ever likely to do. A similar symptom appears in the less strong case of the flight to Varennes. Mr. Browning describes this as "the most important incident of the Revolution," but one may suspect a prejudice arising from his own acknowledged competence on that special topic—for Mr. Browning has done good work in earlier days, but, alas, whereas of the books on Napoleon the *last phase* is better than the *first*, with Mr. Browning it is just the other way about.

Early Dutch and English Voyages to Spitsbergen in the Seventeenth Century. Edited with notes, by Sir Martin Conway, London: The Hakluyt Society. 1904. Pp. 80, xiv, 189. Illustrated.

This addition to the valuable library of reprints of rare documents concerning exploration and the history of navigation, which the Hakluyt Society has given to the world, comprises historical papers relating to the Spitsbergen whale fishery, together with an introduction and explanatory notes, bibliography, and a very full index.

The group of islands collectively known as Spitsbergen was discovered and named in 1596 by Jacob Hendrikzoon Heemskerk, who, with Jan Corneliszoon van Ripp and Willem Barentz, as pilot, were seeking, by direction of the States-General, in two Dutch ships, for a passage through the Arctic seas to China and Japan. This same Heemskerk later earned great fame in the Dutch navy by his courage and ability in action off Gibraltar. The next visitor to these shores was Hendrik Hudson, who was exploring in 1607 for the Muscovy Company of London. He visited the east coast of Spitsbergen and examined several bays, but in reality added little to geographical knowledge. However, the reports brought back by this expedition of the great number of whales frequenting this coast led directly to the establishment of the Spitsbergen whale fishery, in which the fleets of most of the then maritime nations contended for the mastery during many years.

With that nonchalance in disposing of newly discovered lands characteristic of the time, English, Scotch, and Dutch rulers furnished their subjects with patents of monopoly in the fisheries of Spitsbergen, while interlopers claiming the freedom of the seas disregarded impartially the conflicting claims of all others alike. At the head of the whaling profession in those days stood the Biscayans, who took service now with one, now with another party, when they were not foraging on their own

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account. The trying out of blubber took place on the shores, since the whales frequented the bays and inlets, and the Dutch headquarters at Smeerenburg is said to have harbored, during the height of the fishery, a summer population of 20,000 men. The huts, try works, and other outfit were left behind when the fleets departed for the winter, and the first comers in the spring frequently destroyed the property of this kind belonging to their rivals. As a measure of protection, a few attempts were made to leave a small number of men over winter, as watchmen, but in several cases these unfortunates perished miserably of cold and scurvy. Gradually the whales diminished in number, or forsook the bays which had been their resort, the whalers kept to the open sea in pursuit, the shore fisheries dwindled, were at last abandoned, and the Arctic calm once more prevailed where for years rivalry, rising to the point of bloodshed, had been almost the rule.

The scattered documents bearing on this episode in the commerce of Europe have a sociologic as well as an historic interest. In this volume, Sir Martin Conway has brought together the narrative of Hessel Gerritsz (1612), entitled 'Histoire du Pays nommé Spitsberghe'; that of William Heley and his associates, relating to the troubles at Spitsbergen in 1618; the journal of seven seamen left at Spitsbergen in 1633; of Jacob van der Brugge and his party, who wintered at Smeerenburg in 1634, and fortunately survived; and the journal left by the party which took their place the following winter, and were all found dead on the return of the ships—together with several chapters descriptive of the quarrels of the whaling parties among themselves, from contemporary documents. All these were well worth preservation, and are illustrated by facsimile title-pages, maps, and sketches. The publication is in the well-known form adopted by the Society, to which students of history, geography, and adventure are under serious obligations.

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